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THE
HUNDRED GREATEST MEN
PORTRAITS

OF THE
ONE HUNDRED GREATEST MEN OF HISTORY

REPRODUCED FROM FINE AND RARE ENGRAVINGS

VOLUME VII

Politics

WARRIORS AND STATESMEN

WITH AN INTRODUCTION

By J. A. FROUDE

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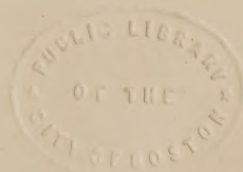
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INTRODUCTION TO VOLUME VII.

KINGS AND STATESMEN

POETS, Artists, Philosophers, Theologians, have passed in procession before us in these volumes. We arrive now at those famous persons without whom neither poets could have sung, nor artists have produced images of beauty, nor men of science, and prophets, have taught truth and the obligations of conscience. School and Temple can only flourish where there is order and good government: and order and government, though they rise spontaneously in some form or other wherever human beings are collected together, yet have been shaped always, and reshaped and modified, by the intellectual superiority of determined and gifted individuals.

To these rulers of mankind, to the men who have organised nations, made laws obeyed, and written their names in history, the consent of the world has given the title of *great*, or the *greatest*, because their actions have produced effects which it has been impossible to refuse to acknowledge, and have been on a scale and of a kind to impress the imagination and to command universal attention. But with the admission of their claim to be distinguished the consent generally ends; and the greatness allowed to them means no more than that they were exceptionally powerful. That certain persons have achieved power, and made their wills obeyed, is a fact not to be questioned; but whether their power has been for good or for evil, whether they were men to be admired for their virtues, or abhorred and execrated, as enemies of their kind, there is in most instances, and probably always will be, a serious difference of opinion. Cicero foretold

truly that the character of Cæsar would be disputed over to the end of time.

Thus, while the chiefs of Art and Science sit honoured on their thrones, without danger of further challenge, no such acquiescence has yet been found in the claims of the kings of men; and the explanation of the difference is easily perceived. Poets and artists may be objects of envy while they are alive, but the pleasure which they give is constant, and they rarely leave occasion for permanent ill-will. Their rivals die, and detraction dies with them, and succeeding generations admit willingly an excellence which is no longer the excellence of a competitor. The statesman, on the other hand, has enemies who never die. He represents some principle, or principles, which are perennial, and which are perpetually in collision with other principles no less vital and enduring. His success represents the triumph of a political party. His name is an immortal symbol, which challenges either admiration or animosity.

Nor is this the only cause. If we could see a great historical king or minister clearly and distinctly, we might admire the man, though we disapproved his policy; but from the nature of the case we see imperfectly, and we depend on our imagination to complete the picture. The principles for which he contended may be clear, the outline of his actions may be clear. But the details are lost; the age in which he lived is swept away, with its passions, its beliefs, and the accidents of surrounding circumstances. His work is gone—gone beyond reach, beyond power of enchanter to recall, and nothing is left but an imperfect description of it. The more fortunate artist leaves his work behind him, to tell us the quality of its author. The great sculptor's statue is in our hands as he shaped it; we see it with our eyes; we measure and examine it at our leisure; we are not at the mercy of the reports of others. Words appear the most fleeting of all things, but words beautifully arranged and with a beautiful meaning in them, have proved the most enduring of all things. We have Horace still present with us: he has left a monument of himself "more enduring than brass." Shakespeare can say "that the Pyramids shall not outlive his powerful Rhyme." Kings less fortunate, write their histories in water. While they are alive all eyes are on them, all tongues are speaking of them. They die, and the generation dies which knew them; and they are left to the mercy of tradition, which is generous or ungenerous according to the temper of the time.

In generous ages, the bad is forgotten, the good is remembered and magnified; the great man is made a God, or Demigod, or Saint; but the legendary robes hide often altogether the real figure. Ungenerous ages leave us malicious libels or caricatures, not less misleading, even if some resemblance is preserved. Even contemporary authorities do not much improve our position. It has been truly said—

“die Zeiten der Vergangenheit
Sind uns ein Buch mit sieben Siegeln.”

It is not always the truest account of a man which survives, but the most smartly written. In all societies the most eminent persons are the surest marks for scandal, and nothing gives wider pleasure. If we do not always believe scandalous stories about such persons, they amuse us, and we remember and repeat them. Let them be cleverly set down, and in a generation or two, when refutation is no longer possible, they will pass into admitted facts. “Calumny,” says Sir Arthur Helps, “can make a cloud appear a mountain; nay, give it time, it can make a cloud become a mountain.” The historian, when he comes to deal with these materials, thinks that he shows his impartiality by reporting evil as well as good. If he desires to be thought wise, he will incline rather to believe the evil than to disbelieve it, and the verdict is left to the opinion of the average public, which in these matters forms its opinions for itself. In Art and Science the public accepts the judgment of the specialist. It is conscious of its own inability, and allows itself to be guided. Every man is taught to suppose that he is a competent judge of political action; and as the majority of men are commonplace, their interpretations of character are naturally commonplace also. They explain conduct by motives with which they are themselves familiar. When they are told that Cromwell was an ambitious hypocrite, they think it so likely that they do not care to look further; nay, as in some ages the disposition is to an extravagant worship of great men, so there is in others a disposition to disbelieve in their existence; a visible desire to deny superiority in any man, and to drag saint and hero down to the common level.

These tendencies are plainly traceable in most modern historic judgments. We believe what we consider likely to be true, rather than weigh the evidence by which it is proved to be true; and our biographical conceptions of the distinguished figures in past ages are still mythical.

There is a mythology of excessive admiration ; there is a mythology of studied depreciation ; and both alike are fatal to a sound judgment. Of the first we are in little danger at present ; as to the other, which is the worst of the two, a few words of warning will not be out of place.

To the student who would understand the history of the men and women whose portraits are here laid before him, I recommend the following considerations :—

Exceptional eminence in public life is generally found in abnormal times, when the constitution of society is changing ; when an old order of things is passing off, and a new order is coming in. Therefore no one is in a position to form a judgment on the conduct of men in such times who does not completely understand their position, and the element in which they had to work.

Men have accomplished great things in this world when they have represented the strongest and best contemporary interests and tendencies ; their contemporaries have said to them : Certain things must be done ; you see most clearly how they should be done ; do you do them, and we will honour you and stand by you. Confidence of this kind is not usually given to personally ambitious men, or to men abandoned to vicious pleasure. Their strength is in the cause of which they are champions ; so far as they have selfish objects they are weak.

Greatness is observed to be simultaneous in all departments of human achievement. The age of great statesmen is the age of great artists and thinkers : something has stirred the highest qualities into activity, and the spiritual level is universally elevated. The Prince, or chief, who under these conditions is especially honoured and admired, has the verdict in his favour of exceptionally good judges. We ought to bear this in mind when we are forming an opinion for ourselves.

Let us remember that libellous anecdotes are not necessarily true, because we read them in books a hundred or a thousand years old, and because they have been repeated ever since. The strength of the chain is only as great as the strength of its first link. A generous mind is clearer sighted than a mind prone to receive the worst interpretation ; and, as Goethe says, "The way to insight is through good will."

J. A. FROUDE.

POLITICS.

TABLE OF THE HUNDRED GREATEST MEN OF ACTION.

I. KINGS.

PERSIAN, GREEK and ROMAN.—Cyrus, Philip, Leonidas, Alexander, Ptolemy Soter, Cæsar, Arminius, Vespasian, Trajan, Hadrian, Antonius, M. Aurelius, Diocletian, Constantine, Theodoric, Justinian (Leo the Isaurian, Zimiscees).

FRENCH and SPANISH.—Clovis, Charlemagne, Philippe Auguste, St. Ferdinand, Alfonso X., St. Louis, Louis XI., Ferdinand and Isabella, The Medici (Italian), Charles V., Henry IV., Louis XIV.

GERMAN and ENGLISH.—Alfred, Canute, Otho, St. Henry, William the Conqueror, Henry II., Richard I., Edward I., Henry VII., Elizabeth, Gustavus Adolphus (Swedish), William III., Maria Theresa, Frederick II.

RUSSIAN, TURKISH, ARABIAN.—Haroun al Raschid, Saladin, Tamerlane, Solyman, Akbar, Ivan the Terrible, Peter the Great, Catherine II.

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IV. POPULAR LEADERS.

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DUTCH, ENGLISH and AMERICAN.—Barneveldt, De Witt, Hampden, Cromwell, Sidney, Penn, Washington, Jefferson, Franklin, Mirabeau (Fr.), Danton (Fr.). Bolivar, Francia, Lincoln.

LIST OF PORTRAITS

IN THE

SEVENTH VOLUME



PERICLES

ALEXANDER

HANNIBAL

CÆSAR

CHARLEMAGNE

ALFRED THE GREAT

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

CHARLES V.

WILLIAM THE SILENT

RICHELIEU

CROMWELL

PETER THE GREAT

FREDERICK II.

WASHINGTON

NELSON

NAPOLEON



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PERICLES

PERICLES

499-429

THE ATHENIANS

PERICLES, one of the noblest heroes of Greek antiquity, was orator, statesman, warrior, and administrator. He came of a renowned family, his mother being a niece of Clisthenes, a foe to tyranny and founder of the Athenian constitution. In his youth he had for instructors some of the most noted philosophers, among whom was Anaxagoras, whom the people called "Nous," or "Intelligence," chief of the Ionian school, "the first who professed philosophy at Athens." It was this master who gave him that force and sublimity of sentiment, and that admirable dignity of manner, for which he was afterwards distinguished.

Extraordinary events occurred in Greece during the boyhood of Pericles. As he was growing up, Athens was increasing in power, and his early military service enabled him to share in some of her glorious enterprises. At this time Cimon was at the head of the aristocratic party in Athens. Pericles, though belonging to a family of this class, declared himself of the opposite party, the people, and rapidly acquired an influence which, as it grew, seemed little short of fascination. He became the popular idol. He was distinguished for his oratory, but it was not this which rendered him the arbiter of Athens. It was by his universal genius, his disinterestedness, the

simplicity of his life, his courage, and military talents, his unalterable probity and his administrative abilities, his intelligence of affairs and capacity as a statesman, together with his fidelity and devotion to the democratic party. The influence which he obtained was not a passing favour; for forty years he maintained his position, destroyed in a great measure the aristocratic authority of the Areopagus in taking away many of its prerogatives, notably the inspection of the treasury, which he transferred into the hands of the people, together with much of the judicial power. Another victory which he gained over the aristocracy was in the banishment of their leader Cimon (460). But later on, when his presence seemed necessary to the interests of the republic, Pericles had the magnanimity to exert his influence for his recall.

After the death of Cimon and the banishment of Thucydides, son of Melesias, who had undertaken to lead the aristocratic party, Pericles found himself without a rival in the field (444). He dispersed the oligarchic faction, established unity and peace in Athens, and, under the modest title of *strategos*, exercised an almost absolute dictatorship, disposing of the public revenues, and directing the movements of the army and the fleet. But all this time the republican forms of government were preserved; it was always the people who in public assemblies decided all the affairs.

Among some of his public acts must be cited the distribution of conquered lands among the poorer citizens, the establishment of colonies in Thrace, Naxos, &c., the building of the long walls which joined Athens to the Piræus and to Phalerius, the development of the Athenian navy, the immense public works undertaken to give occupation to the unemployed, the increase of the national defensive army, and the consolidation and extension of the power of Athens.

Pericles further added to his glory by his protection of letters, arts, and philosophy, and by the construction of those admirable monuments of which our age can admire the *débris*, and which made Athens the most beautiful city of Greece and consequently of the world. The Parthenon, the Odeon, the Propylæa, the temple at Eleusis, those *chefs d'œuvres* of human genius, gloriously justify the name of The Age of Pericles, given to this epoch. His idea was that, while Athens should be always prepared for war, she must also contain everything within herself to make the citizens satisfied with peace.

"The Athenians in their government had constantly in view," says M. Burnouf, "to make their state a work of art. Without comprehending this, it is impossible to see how a man like Pericles could govern the republic during forty years when he held, not the power of Archon, which was the first in the State, but only that of general, which was second. But Pericles was the incarnation of the genius of the Athenian people. In the opening paragraphs of his celebrated funeral oration, preserved by Thucydides, we see how he understood their needs and their ideals. In handling public affairs he essayed to model the State as a work of art, full of life, of thought and liberty. Pericles may be characterized as the political artist of the Athenians. As the work to which he devoted himself demanded independence of thought and speech, without which action is impossible in a democratic State, so he respected in others what he demanded for himself. He was the most powerful man of his time, because he was the most liberal."

In his military expeditions he always joined to the valour which executes, the foresight which prepares, and the genius which conceives. The Chersonesus and Thrace, conquered and colonized, the democracy re-established in Sinope, and in all the Greek colonies of Pont Euxine, the aristocracy humbled in the islands of Eubeus and Samos, where the popular government was established, the domains of the republic extended by his victories, are sufficient testimony to the military capacities of a genius diverse and without an equal. Yet towards the end of his career his credit suffered from the envious, who, not daring to attack him openly, sought to wound him by accusations against his friends Phidias and Anaxagoras. After the discouraging events of the Peloponnesian war, and a frightful plague, there were not wanting, finally, murmurs and threatenings against Pericles himself, and he was excluded from the government; but when the Athenians found themselves so badly served by his successors, they re-elected him, but too late for their good, for he fell a victim to the plague before he had had time to accomplish anything to add further to his own glory or his country's greatness.

"Pericles," says Thirlwall, "to describe his policy in a few words, had two objects mainly in view throughout his public life — to extend and strengthen the Athenian empire, and to raise the confidence and self-esteem of the Athenians themselves to a level with the lofty position which they occupied. Almost all his measures may be clearly referred to one or other of these ends."

A few paragraphs from Plutarch will seem to throw light upon the person and character of this greatest of Athenian statesmen.

"Pericles acquired not only an elevation of sentiment and a loftiness and purity of style, far removed from the low expression of the vulgar, but likewise a gravity of countenance which relaxed not into laughter, a firm and even tone of voice, an easy deportment and a decency of dress, which no vehemence of speaking ever put into disorder. These things, and others of the like nature, excited admiration in all that saw him. It is related that when a low fellow followed him with abuses a whole day, Pericles bore it in silence, and continued to dispatch public affairs, and at night ordered his servant to take a torch and light the man home.

"Yet such was the solicitude of Pericles when he had to speak in public that he always first addressed a prayer to the gods, 'That not a word might unawares escape him unsuitable to the occasion.'"

At first, as we have observed, to raise himself to some sort of equality with Cimon, who was then at the height of glory, Pericles made his court to the people. And as Cimon was his superior in point of fortune, which he employed in relieving the poor Athenians, in providing victuals every day for the necessitous and clothing the aged, and besides this, levelled his fences with the ground, that all might be at liberty to gather his fruit, Pericles had recourse to the expedient of dividing the public treasure, which scheme, as Aristotle informs us, was proposed to him by Demonides of Jos. Accordingly he supplied the people with money for the public diversions and for their attendance in courts of judicature, and gave pensions and gratuities.

The orators of Thucydides' party raised a clamour against Pericles, asserting that he wasted the public treasure and brought the revenue to nothing. Pericles, in his defence, asked the people in full assembly "whether they thought he had expended too much?" Upon their answering in the affirmative, "Then be it charged to my account, not yours: only let the new edifices be inscribed with my name, not that of the people of Athens." Whether it was that they admired the greatness of his spirit, or were ambitious to share the glory of such magnificent works, they cried out "That he might spend as much as he pleased of the public treasure, without sparing it in the least."

"He kept the public good in his eye and pursued the straight path of honour; for the most part gently leading them by argument to a sense of

what was right, and sometimes forcing them to comply with what was for their own advantage."

"He was a man that had the art of controlling those many disorderly passions which necessarily spring up amongst a people possessed of so extensive a dominion. The two engines he worked were hope and fear; with these repressing their violence when they were too impetuous, and supporting their spirits when they were inclined to languor."

EXTRACTS FROM THE ORATION OF PERICLES.—"We enjoy a form of government which does not copy the laws of our neighbours, but we are ourselves rather a pattern to others than imitators of them. In name, from its not being administered for the benefit of the few but of the many, it is called a democracy; but with regard to its laws, all enjoy equally as concerns their private differences: while with regard to public rank, according as each man has reputation for anything, he is preferred for public honours, not so much from consideration of party, as of merit; nor again, on the ground of poverty, when he is able to do the state any good service, is he prevented by the obscurity of his position."

"We have provided for our spirits the most numerous recreations from labour by celebrating games and sacrifices throughout the whole year, and by maintaining elegant private establishments, from which the daily gratification drives any sadness."

"In the studies of war, also, we differ from our enemies (the Spartans) in the following respects. We throw open our city to all, and never, by the expulsion of strangers, exclude any one from either learning or observing things, by seeing which unconcealed any of our enemies might gain an advantage, for we trust not so much to preparations and stratagems as to our own valour for daring deeds. Again, as to our modes of education; they (the Spartans) aim at the acquisition of a manly character by laborious training from their early youth: while we, though living at our ease, no less boldly advance to meet equal dangers . . . if with careless ease rather than with laborious practice, and with a courage which is the result, not of the laws but of natural disposition, we are willing to face great dangers, we have the advantage of not suffering beforehand from coming troubles, and of proving ourselves, when we are involved in them, no less bold than those who are always toiling."

"We study taste with economy, and philosophy without effeminacy,

employing our wealth for opportunity of action, not for boastfulness of talking; while poverty is nothing disgraceful for a man to confess, but not to escape from it by exertion is more disgraceful."

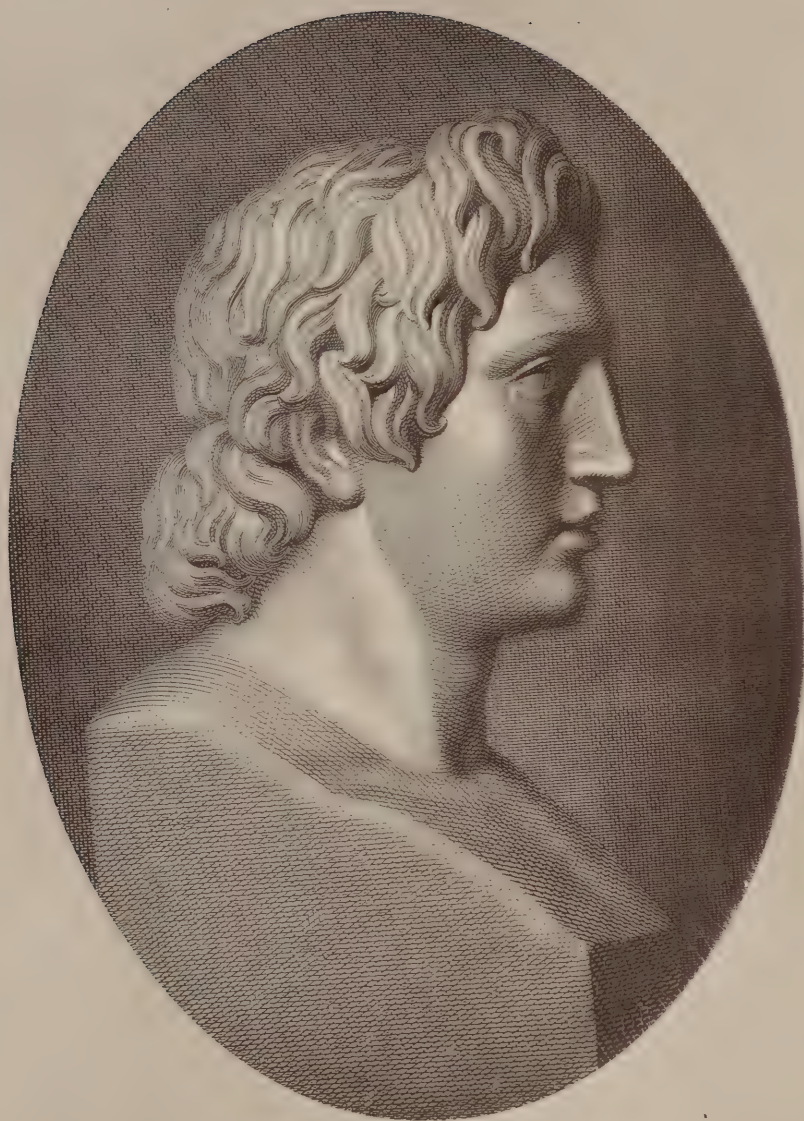
"In short, I say both that the whole city is a school for Greece, and that in my opinion the same individual would amongst us prove himself qualified for the most varied kinds of action, and with the most graceful versatility."

P E R I C L E S

C H R O N O L O G Y O F H I S L I F E



B.C.						
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ALEXANDER

ALEXANDER THE GREAT

B.C. 356-323

THE MACEDONIANS

ALEXANDER was born B.C. 356 (OL. 106, 1). The night of his birth saw the burning of the temple of "the great goddess Diana of the Ephesians." He was the son of Philip, king of Macedonia, and his wife Olympias. Philip was a greater sovereign than any of his predecessors, and he had large ambition. Macedonia, which lay on the northern border of Greece, the country of the Hellenes, was not itself Hellenic, but only closely akin to the Hellenic race. Its line of kings, however, boasted of Hellenic descent; and one of the aims of Philip was to obtain for his country recognition as a Greek state, and ultimately supremacy over all the Greek commonwealths. These aims he accomplished, partly by war and partly by policy and diplomacy. Two great and memorable things he did besides—produced a son greater than himself, and created a Macedonian phalanx, which stood invincible till broken by Roman legions. To this son, Alexander, and to this phalanx, he had to leave the execution of his vastest design, an expedition of all the Greeks under his leadership against the cumbrous luxurious despotism of Persia, which had thrown its portentous shadow over Hellas. The invasions of Darius and Xerxes must be avenged;

the victories of Marathon and Salamis and Mycale must be followed up by victory in the very heart of the invaders' own empire; and the Greeks and human culture and civilisation be thus made safe from the repetition and the fear of like perils. Philip was assassinated just when his preparations were completed, B.C. 336.

Alexander was now twenty years of age. He had given abundant proofs of being made of manly stuff. In boyhood, one of his triumphs was the taming of the horse, untameable by others, Bucephalus (*Bull-headed*), that bore him in so many fights. He had received the best education attainable; and for the last of his tutors had Aristotle himself, whom he cherished with the highest reverence, and loved as a father. "Never before or since," says Thirlwall, "have two persons so great in the historical sense of the word been brought together, above all in the same relation, as Alexander and Aristotle." Alexander early loved the 'Iliad,' and especially the grand Achilles, from whom he delighted to trace his descent. He remained always a lover of books and of all knowledge, and in the course of his conquests is said to have made collections in natural history for the benefit of Aristotle. At sixteen he was entrusted with the regency during Philip's absence; and at eighteen he showed what he could do as a warrior by defeating the Theban Sacred Band on the field of Chæroneia.

Grave difficulties beset him on his accession; but he was master of them all. He obtained the same leadership (*hegemony*) of the Greeks which had been granted to his father; suppressed swiftly all attempts at rebellion; stormed and razed Thebes, massacred and sold the inhabitants into slavery, but, with the beautiful sympathy of genius, "bade spare the house of Pindarus." This terrible decisiveness subdued all Greece. In the spring of 334 he set forth on his great adventure, crossed the Hellespont with his army of 35,000 men unopposed, visited the supposed site of Troy, and by the victory over the Persians on the Granicus became master of part of Asia Minor. He had, however, much fighting to do there till the next spring (333), when he advanced into the Persian empire. He cut the famous Gordian knot, and defeated Darius at Issus, taking, among a host of captives, the family of the king. He next marched into Phœnicia, and during the ensuing year and a half besieged Tyre and Gaza, and reduced Egypt. After the fall of Tyre he is said to have hanged two thousand of the citizens. The story told by Jôsephus, that on his way he visited

Jerusalem, is not confirmed by other historians. In Egypt he displayed his far-sighted aims by the foundation of a new capital, Alexandria, the history and importance of which in after ages justified, perhaps surpassed, his anticipations. Meanwhile Darius had assembled another host; and in 331, after visiting the oracle of Ammon in Libya, by which he was recognised as son of Zeus, Alexander marched into Persia, met and defeated Darius again at Gaugamela, pursuing him to Arbela, and leaving him a fugitive without a kingdom. Babylon, Susa, and Persepolis made but slight resistance, and surrendered to the conqueror, with their immense treasure. Darius was soon after murdered by some of his officers. Advancing further eastward and northward, Alexander conquered Bactria and Sogdiana, and arrived at the Indus. Meanwhile he had been guilty of putting to death, on frivolous pretexts, some of his truest friends, Philotas, Parmenion, and Clitus. The last he slew with his own hand in a drunken rage (326). Crossing the river, he encountered and defeated Porus, crossed the districts now called the Punjab, and reached the Hyphasis (Sutlej). His own ambition was to press on and conquer India, but his troops refused to go further. He had, therefore, no choice but to retrace his steps to the Hydaspes. Here he had a fleet built, with which he made the descent of the Indus to the ocean; then marched through the deserts of Gedrosia into Persia, the hardships of this march costing him enormous losses. Meanwhile his friend Nearchus, who was made admiral of the fleet, had successfully accomplished the hazardous voyage from the Indus, up the Persian Gulf, to the Euphrates. They met again at Susa, where rest was to be taken, and some important measures to be adopted with a view to as complete a union as possible of the Greek and Asiatic races. One of these measures was the intermarriage of the Macedonian soldiers with Asiatic women. A great festival was held, in which Alexander set the example, by marrying Statira, daughter of Darius, his principal officers taking as their wives noble Persian and Median ladies. Ten thousand private soldiers followed these high examples. Susa witnessed also another astonishing spectacle of a very different kind; the voluntary death of the Indian philosopher, Calanus, by burning on a funeral pile. He was past seventy, and being seized with illness for the first time, chose to die rather than prolong a useless life by artificial means.

Alexander had to deal with serious discontents among his troops. A mutiny broke out, which by remorseless resolution he quelled, and ten

thousand veterans were discharged. After this he marched to Ecbatana, where his special friend Hephæstion died; and in the spring of 323 he reached Babylon, which was to be the capital of his vast empire. He had now attained the climax of his glory. There were signs that he had not passed unharmed through the ordeal of success. His grief over the death of Hephæstion was carried to a wild excess; and the mourning and funeral ceremonies were on a scale of stupendous extravagance. For himself, he now claimed divine honours, and they were conceded. But energy and activity did not fail. His imagination was busy with vast new projects, and his subjects with preparations for carrying them out. He was gay at banquets, and drank to excess. Meanwhile, there were fluttering about him presages and omens that gave him pause; fever laid its hand upon him. The twentieth day of his illness he ordered his bed to be moved near the great bath: here he talked to the generals about vacancies in the armies, desiring them to be filled with experienced officers. The twenty-fourth day he was much worse, but was carried to assist at the sacrifice: the twenty-eighth he died.

Alexander's life was of hardly thirty-three years; his reign of less than thirteen. Such achievements as his in so brief a space are unparalleled. His empire, it is true, was broken up; but great Greek kingdoms were formed of its fragments. Greek cities and colonies were founded everywhere, from the Libyan Oasis to the Jaxartes; and the Greek tongue, most rich and copious of all, became the universal speech of government and literature. So that when the religion that was for all nations was preached and taught, its evangelists and apostles spake and wrote in the language of Alexander, and we have a *Greek Testament* from the pens of Hebrew men. The sudden enlargement of men's geographical knowledge was paralleled in no age, except in that of Columbus; and so wide and fruitful intercourse between civilised nations was opened as had never been possible or dreamed of before.

[For an interesting view of the scientific results of Alexander's campaigns, see Humboldt's '*Cosmos*,' vol. ii.]

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342	PLACED UNDER ARISTOTLE	AGE	14		
338	FOUGHT AT CHÆRONEIA	„	18		
336	SUCCEEDED FATHER AS KING	„	20		
335	SUBDUED GREEKS; DESTROYED THEBES	„	21		
334	MADE WAR WITH PERSIA; CROSSED HELLESPONT	„	22		
333	DEFEATED DARIUS AT ISSUS; BEGAN SIEGE OF TYRE	„	23		
332	TOOK TYRE; CONQUERED SYRIA AND EGYPT; FOUNDED										
	ALEXANDRIA	„	24		
331	DEFEATED DARIUS AT GAUGAMELA AND BABYLON	„	25		
330-28	CONQUEST OF PARTHIA, MEDIA, BACTRIA	„	26-8		
329	AGAINST THE SCYTHIANS; WINTERED AT BACTRIA	„	27		
328	CAMPAIGN IN SOGDIANA; WINTERED AT NAUTACA	„	28		
327	CAMPAIGN IN BACTRIA	„	29		
326-24	INVADED INDIA; OVERRAN ASIA	„	30		
325	REACHED PERSEPOLIS AND CUZA	„	31		
324	RETURNED TO BABYLON; PROJECTED FRESH CON-										
	QUESTS	„	32		
323	DIED AT BABYLON	„	33		



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HANNIBAL

HANNIBAL

247-183 B.C.

THE CARTHAGINIANS

“THE Phœnicians directed all the resources of courage, acuteness and enthusiasm to the full development of commerce and its attendant art of navigation, manufacturing, and colonization, and thus connected the East and the West. At an incredibly early period we find them in Cyprus and Egypt, in Greece and Sicily, in Africa and Spain, and even on the Atlantic Ocean and the North Sea. The field of their commerce reached from Sierra Leone and Cornwall in the west, eastward to the coast of Malabar. Through their hands passed the gold and pearls of the East, the purple of Tyre, slaves, ivory, lions’ and panthers’ skins from the interior of Africa, frankincense from Arabia, the linen of Egypt, the pottery and fine wines of Greece, the copper of Cyprus, the silver of Spain, tin from England, and iron from Elba. The Phœnician mariners supplied every nation with whatever it needed or was likely to purchase, and they roamed everywhere, but always cherished the hope of returning to the narrow home to which their affections clung.”

The life of Hannibal is the story of a people in many respects the noblest and most advanced in antiquity, when at the height of its power

aiming at the supremacy of the world, and not only failing in the attempt, but losing its own life. With the fall of Carthage commercial civilisation was extinguished, and military civilisation for a thousand years occupied its place.

Hannibal, the greatest warrior of ancient time, was a Carthaginian, the son of Hamilcar Barca, the great statesman and general by whom Spain was first brought under the influences of order and industry. When a mere boy, Hannibal accompanied his father on his expeditions to that country, and after his death, being still young, served under his brother-in-law Hasdrubal, and became the idol of the army on account of his great bravery, and the strong resemblance he bore to his father. He showed so much capacity and valour that after the assassination of Hasdrubal, the army elected him to the command, amidst the most lively acclamations, which election was confirmed by the senate of Carthage.

Veiling his real design of making war against the Romans and Rome, Hannibal began at first the work of the entire subjugation of Spain, and after the first astonishing successes most of the cities submitted without a siege. In less than three years he had subdued all the tribes of Spain, and returned triumphant to Carthage, when he set about raising a powerful army to carry into effect his mighty project of crossing the Pyrenees and the Alps and attacking the Romans in the midst of Italy. Providing for the safety of Africa, and leaving an army in Spain under his brother Hasdrubal, he began his march with 90,000 foot, 12,000 horse, and forty elephants; crossed the Pyrenees, quickly dispersing an army of Gauls who disputed his passage. Avoiding the army of Publius Scipio sent to check him, he arrived at the summits of the Alps, and having in fifteen days effected a passage, he drew up his forces on the plains of Pignerol. This terrible march had reduced his army to 26,000 men, who resembled shadows rather than soldiers, but he had no space or time to recruit, being forced to fight for every inch of ground he occupied. Soon the taking of Turin by assault gave him relief and the opportunity to recruit his troops, and make a treaty with the Cisalpine Gauls. An engagement with Publius Scipio was crowned with victory, but immediately the army under Sempronius confronted him. This also he vanquished, inflicting great loss on the Romans.

On coming out of winter quarters in Cisalpine Gaul he put in

practice a plan for crushing the consul Flaminius before he could be joined by his colleague, and by a masterly strategy of counterfeited marches engaged them near Trasimenus, where the Romans were entirely routed, 15,000 captives falling into the hands of the Carthaginians. Here Hannibal showed himself not only mighty in battle but politic and merciful in conquest. The moment of decisive victory, he called the soldiers from the carnage and ordered a search among the slain for the body of Flaminius, that he might do him funereal honours ; and he set free all the Italian prisoners without ransom.

After this he settled in the plains of Adria and sent the news to Carthage. Rich with spoil, and with his troops newly equipped and reorganised, he penetrated into Apulia, spreading consternation on all sides. The Romans now depended on Fabius Maximus, who sought by temporising to wear out the vigour of the Carthaginians, whom they dared no longer encounter. To reduce his army or make it quit the country Fabius succeeded in forcing Hannibal to make futile marches, and really inveigled him into the same kind of a snare that had cost Flaminius his life ; but the superior craft of Hannibal enabled him to extricate himself. The Roman people, discontented with the tardiness of Fabius, now forced him to divide the command with Minutius Felix, his general of horse. More hazardous than Fabius, he risked an engagement, and would have perished had it not been for the succour of his colleague, who now persuaded him to adopt his policy. The consuls immediately succeeding accomplished nothing against this invincible foe. But finally came Turentius Varro. Hannibal was at this time encamped at Cannæ, and here the Romans were reduced to the necessity of a combat. It is said 86,000 Roman soldiers were drawn up in battle array, but the superior genius of Hannibal was more than a match for Roman valour, and this most bloody and celebrated battle resulted in little less than the annihilation of this powerful Roman army. The Republic was brought to the verge of despair.

A short extract from Polybius exhibits the clemency and humanity of the victor after this battle. "He addressed the captive Roman allies in terms of kindness, as he had done before at the Trebia and the lake Trasimenus, and dismissed them without a ransom: then he addressed the Roman captives, who were called to him, in very gentle terms: That he was not carrying on a war of extermination with the Romans, but was

contending for honour and empire. That his ancestors had yielded to the Roman valour, and that he was endeavouring that others might be obliged to yield in their turn to his good fortune and valour together. Accordingly he allowed the captives the liberty of ransoming themselves, and that the price per head should be five hundred denarii for a horseman, three hundred for a foot soldier, and one hundred for a slave."

Enfeebled and reduced to 36,000 men, Hannibal was not in a position to push on to Rome, and so withdrew to Capua, where he sought to strengthen himself, and succeeded in maintaining his army some years longer in Italy. Although no general dared encamp before Hannibal, yet the Romans gained some successes in Spain, and put a bound to his conquests by raising new legions and showing themselves, as usual, superior to the reverses of fortune. On account of envious factions in Carthage, Mago, the brother of Hannibal, was unable to obtain reinforcements for him, and Hannibal saw himself compelled to rest on the defensive. Two armies were sent against Capua, and Hannibal, hoping to conquer both by a bold diversion, led out his troops as if to march on Rome, and encamped before it 211 B.C. But being unable to effect anything there, he was forced to abandon the territory, and lost Capua besides. This success of the Romans at Capua gave them an evident superiority, and induced all the tribes of Italy to declare for them; but the defeat of the consul Fulvius somewhat diminished their exultation. Shortly after this, Favius Marcellus engaged the Carthaginians for three days in battle, and retook Tarentum; but Hannibal on his side defeated Sempronius Gracchus and surprised Marcellus by an ambuscade.

But no reverses seemed capable of changing the policy of the Romans. Claudius Nero was now elected consul, and with fresh forces took the field, attacking Hannibal even in his camp. Hannibal did not offer battle to Nero, as he was waiting for Hasdrubal to join him with forces from Spain. But Nero went to upper Italy, and defeated Hasdrubal; and instead of the expected succours, the Carthaginians were horrified by seeing the bloody head of their general's brother thrown into their camp by the exulting Romans. Hannibal withdrew to Bruttium, fighting his way and maintaining his usual success. But Rome had reconquered Sicily and Spain, and, under Scipio, had carried the war into Africa. Carthage was trembling, and Hannibal was recalled. In 205 B.C. he embarked his troops, turning many

lingering looks on that beautiful country where for sixteen years he had maintained himself alone against all the forces of Rome, and where, at the news of his departure, the Romans, as may be imagined, greatly rejoiced.

Hannibal was no sooner landed at Carthage than he was pressed by the citizens to come to an immediate action, as the enemy were encamped at Zama, within five miles of them. But he thought of making a treaty, and demanded an interview with Scipio, who, speaking as the conqueror, and offering him impossible terms, so wounded the pride of Hannibal, that he resolved that arms should decide the contest. The two armies engaged, and Hannibal, the hitherto unconquerable, was overcome and fled to Adrumetium. Here, little by little, he collected forces enough to arrest the progress of the conqueror, and by a powerful address, succeeded in making the Senate consent to accept terms of peace.

After the conclusion of a treaty Hannibal was given the command of an army in the interior of Africa, but Rome demanded his recall, and he became engaged in the government at home. He corrected many abuses in the government, but an envious faction accused him of treating with Antiochus of Syria against Rome, and he had only time to flee before the ungrateful citizens attacked his palace and he was declared banished.

From Cercinè Hannibal went to Tyre and then to Ephesus, where he persuaded Prince Antiochus to declare war against the Romans. Carthage refused to break her league with Rome, but Antiochus resolved to pursue the war, and confided to Hannibal the direction of the fleet, soon after, however, concluding a shameful peace, and promising to deliver Hannibal to the Romans. The illustrious Carthaginian fled, took refuge at the court of King Prusias, where he became the centre of a powerful league formed against Eumenes, King of Pergamus and ally of Rome. Many victories followed on sea and land, but Asia still trembled at the name of Rome, and even Prusias was not proof against the ambassadors of the Eternal City who came to demand either Hannibal or his death. To the last moment the hero preserved his noble spirit, and when choosing to die by poison rather than fall into the hands of his enemies, he said, "I will deliver the Romans from the terror which an old man inspires in them, who dare not await his death. They once had the generosity to warn Pyrrhus

of a traitor who would poison him, but now they have the baseness to send a consul to demand of Prusias to make away with his guest and friend." It was in his 64th year, 185 B.C., that Hannibal died by poison administered by himself.

Polybius, after having proposed Hannibal as a model of all warriors, says: "What a man! what cleverness in the art of conducting armies! What a grand soul merits our admiration when Nature renders it proper to execute all that which it pleases to undertake!" This judicious historian appears persuaded that Carthage would have become the mistress of the world, if Hannibal had commenced by subjugating all other nations before attacking Rome. In effect gifted with a courage mingled with wisdom and an indefatigable activity, he planned and executed, at the age of twenty-six, a military plan, the boldest which has ever been conceived by the genius of man. He carried the war to the bosom of Rome even, of Rome in all her force. Nothing arrested him, neither the Spanish army, the Pyrenees, the rivers, nor the eternal glaciers of the Alps. It is in vain that Rome reunites against him all her efforts, that she sends to oppose him the Fabii, the Æmili, the Marcelluses, and the Scipios,—Hannibal, alone, balances the fortune of so many illustrious captains: he maintains discipline in an army formed of twenty diverse nations, defeats all the Roman armies, and during sixteen years menaces the Capitol.

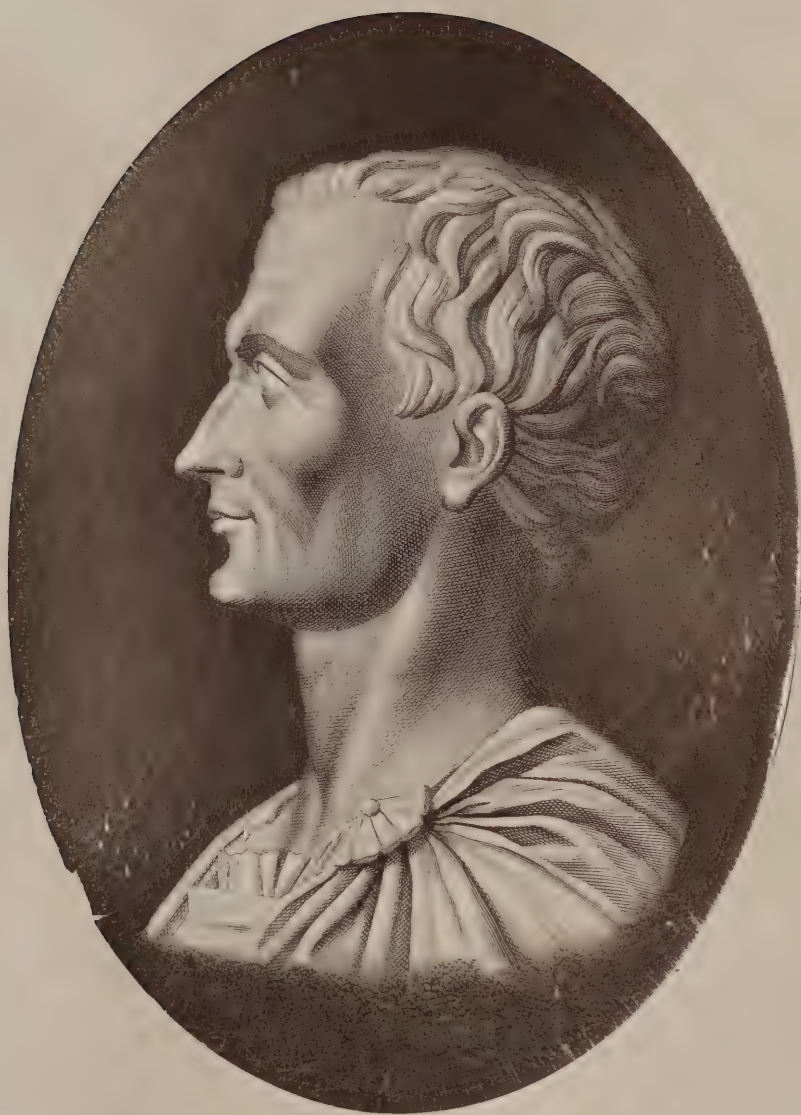
"His contemporaries tried to cast stains of all sorts upon his character; the Romans charged him with cruelty, the Carthaginians with covetousness; and it is true that he hated as only Oriental natures know how to hate, and that a general who never fell short of money and stores can hardly have been other than covetous. Nevertheless, though anger and envy and meanness have written his history, they have not been able to mar the pure and noble image which it presents. Laying aside wretched inventions which furnish their own refutation, and some things which his lieutenants, particularly Hannibal Monomachus and Mago the Samnite, were guilty of doing in his name, nothing occurs in the accounts regarding him which may not be justified in the circumstances, and by the international law of the times; and all agree in this, that he combined in rare perfection discretion and enthusiasm, caution and energy. He was peculiarly marked by that inventive craftiness which forms one of the leading traits of the Phœnician character. He was fond of taking singular and unexpected routes;

ambushes and stratagems of all sorts were familiar to him ; and he studied the character of his antagonists with unprecedented care. By an unrivalled system of espionage—he had regular spies even in Rome—he kept himself informed of the projects of the enemy. He himself was frequently seen wearing disguises and false hair in order to procure information on some point or other. Every page of the history of the times attests his genius as a general ; and his gifts as a statesman were, after the peace with Rome, no less conspicuously displayed in his reform of the Carthaginian constitution, and in the unparalleled influence which as an exiled stranger he exercised in the cabinets of the Eastern powers. The power which he wielded over men is shown by his incomparable control over an army of various nations and many tongues—an army which never in the worst times mutinied against him. He was a great man ; wherever he went he riveted the eyes of all.”

HAN NIBAL

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE

B.C.			
247	DATE OF BIRTH.		
238	ACCOMPANIED HIS FATHER TO SPAIN	AGE	9
229	AT THE BATTLE WHEN HIS FATHER WAS KILLED	„	18
221	SUCCEEDED HASDRUBAL AS COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF	„	26
220	DEFEATED VACCAENS	„	27
219	BESIEGED SAGUNTUM	„	28
218	SET OUT FOR ITALY; DEFEATED SCIPIO AND SEMPRONIUS	„	29
217	DEFEATED FLAMINIUS AND SERVILIUS	„	30
216	DEFEATED ÆMILIUS PAULUS AND VARRO	„	31
215	TOOK CAPUA	„	32
212	SEIZED TARENTUM	„	35
211	MARCHED TO ROME; RAISED THE SIEGE	„	36
209	LOST TARENTUM	„	38
208	RAISED SIEGE OF LOCRI	„	39
207	RETIRED TO BRUTTIUM	„	40
203	RECALLED TO AFRICA	„	44
202	DEFEATED BY SCIPIO AT ZAMA	„	45
201	CHIEF MAGISTRATE OF CARTHAGE	„	46
193	ACCUSED OF NEGOTIATIONS WITH ANTIOCHUS	„	54
190	DEFEATED BY RHODIAN FLEET	„	57
183	TAKES REFUGE WITH KING OF BITHYNIA; DEMANDED BY ROMANS; DEATH BY POISON	„	64



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CÆSAR

C Æ S A R

100 B.C.

THE ROMANS

A GREAT man of his age is, according to Hegel, the spirit the most clairvoyant, the heart the most firm, the hand the most clever; he has perceived, still veiled, but already formed in the bosom of things, the truth which belongs to that age. He it is that shall disengage it, that shall make it triumph: he is formed for that need; he speaks and they listen; he marches, they follow; he is the force around which the other forces naturally group themselves. From this theory of great men and revolutions, Hegel has taken the justification and glorification of Cæsar.

“The great man,” says M. Cousin, “the providential man is a being in which all the world recognise themselves, because he expresses the thoughts of all, clearer and more completely than any other. This is his veritable pedestal. It is from the height of this general spirit, and common to all, that he commands all. That which makes the man great is the intimate, spontaneous, irresistible belief that this man represents the people, the country, the epoch. But the great man does not represent alone his country or his epoch; he represents a special idea, that he is called to make triumph. For that he arrives on the scene of history just at the moment

when his presence is necessary ; disappears when his work is finished. To these diverse characteristics there is joined a third, which follows the others. To do the work to which he is called, the great man needs a great power. This power he has pushed into the ascendant, which he exercises on the masses, who see in him their image, their ideal. A fourth characteristic of the great man is that he succeeds : without success there could be no utility ; he could not leave great results, he could not be a great man. These four distinctive characteristics complete themselves by a fifth ; it is the *glory*, the recompense of great actions, which must surely follow. The great results are visible to all eyes. Glory, the daughter of great deeds, is as manifest as the deeds themselves. Glory is the judgment of Humanity, which is a final judgment."

The birth of Cæsar was a hundred years previous to that of Christ. He belonged to an illustrious patrician family, but was allied to the middle classes, through his aunt's marriage to Marius. He grew up in the midst of civil wars ; at fourteen was priest of Jupiter, but being banished some time after by Sylla, joined the army and was sent to Bithynia. Here he saw military service under the Roman prætors, and remained in Asia till the death of Sylla. Then, simply observing the position of affairs at Rome, he passed on to Rhodes to study eloquence under the rhetorician Molo, with whom Cicero also studied.

In 74 B.C., re-returning to Rome, he was elected member of the College of Pontiffs, and set about gaining the good-will of the populace by the usual means, neglecting nothing that could pave the way for his elevation. He was named successively military tribune, quæstor, ædile. He astonished the citizens by his profuse liberality, and gained more surely the affections of the plebeians and soldiers by reinstating the statues of Marius, which had been proscribed by Pompey. Although he was suspected of being at least cognizant of the designs of Cataline against the Government, he was not indicted, and in 61 B.C., departed to the governorship of farther Spain, Crassus becoming responsible for his immense debts.

Arrived in Spain, he commenced immediately to subdue the inhabitants, and in a short time had enriched himself and his troops with spoil. Returning to Rome, he formed an alliance with Pompey and Crassus, for the joint maintenance of power, *the triumvirate*. He married his daughter to Pompey, to cement the political alliance, and beholding Rome given up to

factions and contests between Crassus and Pompey, he departed with an army to gain glory and riches by subduing the Gauls. During the nine years that he engaged in this war, he accomplished the most prodigious results, subjugating the different tribes from Provence to Holland and the Rhine, crossing the mountains of Jura and Auvergne, the oak forests of Gaul, and penetrating even to England. It is said two millions of lives were sacrificed, and that all the riches of Gaul passed into his hands, much of which went to keep up his popularity in Rome during his absence. After showing himself to the Gauls in the light of a terrible conqueror, he changed his policy, and, clement and humane, diminished their tributes, composed a legion of their best warriors, and entirely gained their affections.

But a few Romans, while his liberalities and glorious conquests completely gained the majority, sought to retrench his power, and so far succeeded that the Senate decreed he should disband his legions, giving the defence of the State into the hands of Pompey. Cæsar was at Ravenna when this decree was passed, and though he had but five or six thousand soldiers with him, he determined to march immediately to Rome, to re-establish the tribunes in their dignity, and, as he affirmed, to render liberty to the people oppressed by factions. The Rubicon once passed, sixteen days' rapid marching sufficed to bring him near Rome, but Pompey had evacuated with his forces and a great concourse of magistrates, senators, and citizens, retreating to Brundisium. Here Cæsar followed him, when Pompey took ship for Epirus.

Though Cæsar was master of Rome he had no navy to follow Pompey, so marched quickly into Spain, where his enemies had devoted troops, and in a short time had subjugated the province, returned to Italy, and conducted a part of his army in the captured vessels to Epirus. With a much inferior force he succeeded, at the memorable battle of Pharsalia, in crushing Pompey and his senatorial army, and pursued him to Egypt, where, Pompey having been assassinated, he turned his arms against Ptolemy, and established Cleopatra on the throne. With the same successful rapidity he carried out an expedition against the son of Mithrades, after which he appeared in Rome and filled the magistracies with his devoted friends, liberally rewarded his colleagues and soldiers, and hastened to Africa to complete the downfall of the Republican party, which was accomplished at the battle of Thapsus, 46 B.C.

For the fourth time he returned to Rome in triumph, and so great was his ascendancy that he was able to absorb in himself all the power under divers names. He was consul, prefect, perpetual dictator, prince, and imperator. He granted a general amnesty, and pardoned almost all those who had carried arms against him. The following year he completely crushed the party of Pompey by defeating his sons in Spain.

But his victory had not solved any of the problems which existed at bottom, nor brought any remedy to the wounds which were festering in Roman society. There were still the miserable plebeians, military factions, a devouring aristocracy, despoiled provinces, and lastly, an Italy where invasion and multiplication of slaves had gradually extinguished the free cultivators of the soil, and ruined agriculture. Many of the measures which Cæsar instituted to reform these abuses showed that he was aristocratic by nature as well as by birth; yet he made many useful laws, restrained extravagance, conferred the right of citizenship on those who exercised the liberal professions at Rome, sent poor families to found colonies, revived Carthage and Corinth. He reformed the calendar. Many projects of public utility were not realized on account of his early death. He was surrounded by the most lively envy, and his death was soon brought about by men who had accepted his amnesty, and who had been pardoned and put in positions of honour. They could accept his pardon, but could not endure the signs of his growing despotism, as they called it, and a conspiracy, with M. Brutus and Cassius at its head, was formed, which treacherously and surely carried out the well-arranged plot.

We conclude the article with the following from Froude:—

“Of Cæsar it may be said that he came into the world at a special time and for a special object. The old religions were dead, from the Pillars of Hercules to the Euphrates and the Nile, and the principles on which human society had been constructed were dead also. There remained of spiritual conviction only the common and human sense of justice and morality; and out of this sense some ordered system of government had to be constructed, under which quiet men could live and labour and eat the fruit of their industry.

“Such a kingdom was the Empire of the Cæsars, a kingdom where peaceful men could work, think, and speak as they pleased, and travel freely among provinces ruled for the most part by Gallios who protected life and

CÆSAR

BY RUBENS FROM THE ANTIQUE



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property, and forbade fanatics to tear each other in pieces for their religious opinions.

“And this spirit, which confined government to its simplest duties, while it left opinion unfettered, was especially present in Julius Cæsar. From cant of all kinds he was totally free. He was a friend of the people, but he indulged in no enthusiasm for liberty. He never dilated on the beauties of virtue, or complimented, as Cicero did, a Providence in which he did not believe. He was too sincere to stoop to unreality. He held to the facts of this life and to his own convictions; and as he found no reason for supposing that there was a life beyond the grave, he did not pretend to expect it. He respected the religion of the Roman State as an institution established by the laws. He encouraged, or left unmolested, the creeds and practices of the uncounted sects or tribes who were gathered under the eagles. But his own writings contain nothing to indicate that he himself had any religious belief at all. He saw no evidence that the gods practically interfered in human affairs. He never pretended that Jupiter was on his side. He thanked his soldiers after a victory, but he did not order *Te Deums* to be sung for it; and in the absence of these conventionalisms he perhaps showed more real reverence than he could have displayed by the freest use of the formulas of pietism.

“He fought his battles to establish some tolerable degree of justice in the government of this world; and he succeeded, though he was murdered for doing it.”

C Æ S A R

C H R O N O L O G Y O F H I S L I F E

B.C.

100 DATE OF BIRTH.

87	FLAMEN DIALIS	AGE	13
82	DEPRIVED OF PRIESTHOOD BY SULLA	„	18
76	ACCUSED DOLABELLA; CAPTURED BY PIRATES	„	24
74	PONTIFF	„	26
73	MILITARY TRIBUNE	„	27
68	ELECTED QUÆSTOR	„	32
65	CURULE ÆDILE	„	35
63	PONTIFEX MAXIMUS	„	37
62	PRÆTOR	„	38
61	CAMPAIGN IN SPAIN	„	39
60	CONSUL; TRIUMVIRATE	„	40
58-6	CONQUEST OF GAUL	„	42-44
55	INVADED BRITAIN	„	45
49	COMMANDED TO DISBAND HIS ARMY; WAR DECLARED	„	51
48	DEFEATED POMPEY AT PHARSALIA	„	52
47	NOMINATED DICTATOR; CONQUERED EGYPT	„	53
46	DICTATOR FOR TEN YEARS; REFORMED CALENDAR	„	54
45	DEFEATED SONS OF POMPEY; DECLINED CROWN	„	55
44	ASSASSINATED	„	56



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CHARLEMAGNE

CHARLEMAGNE

A.D. 742-814

THE FRANKS

IN the eighth century, on the ruins of the Roman and beneath the blows of the barbaric world, the Gallo-Frankish nation, vast and without cohesion, brutish and ignorant, was incapable of bringing forth with the aid of its own wisdom and virtue a stable government. Hosts of different forces, without enlightenment, and without restraint, were everywhere and incessantly struggling for dominion, or were ever troubling and endangering the social condition. Let there but arise in the midst of this chaos of unruly forces and selfish passions a great man, one of those elevated minds and strong characters that can understand the essential aim of society and then urge it forward, and at the same time keep it well in hand on the roads that lead thereto, and such a man will soon seize and exercise the personal power almost of a despot, and people will not only make him welcome, but even celebrate his praises. Such was the empire of Charlemagne. Among annalists and historians, some, treating him as a mere conqueror and despot, have ignored his merits and his glory; others, admiring him without scruple, have made him a founder of free institutions—a constitutional monarch. Both are equally mistaken: Charlemagne was indeed both a conqueror and a despot; but by his conquests and personal power he saved Gallo-

Frankish society from barbaric invasion without and anarchy within. That is the characteristic of his government and his title to glory.

The Romans came into hostile contact with German tribes during Cæsar's campaigns in Gaul (B.C. 55). In A.D. 9 the German hero Arminius (*Hermann*), at the head of his confederated countrymen, encountered the Roman commander Varus at the head of three legions, and in a three days' fight, in a region of wooded hills, defeated and destroyed the whole army. The centuries of imperial Rome are full of the din of conflict between the forces of the two peoples, the one declining, the other waxing mightier. Rome at length ceased to be a seat of empire, and for three centuries was subject to the emperors of the East. A new religion has superseded the old Paganism, and on the seven hills is throned a new Power, claiming to be its representative and chief. And at length the empire of the West was re-established, and the emperor was a German king.

Charles the Great, who in after-times came to be called by the French name "Charlemagne," was born at Salzburg, in Bavaria, in 742. He was the son of Pepin the Short, first king of the Franks of the second (Carolingian) line, and grandson of Charles Martel, the hero whose victory near Tours, in 732, saved Europe from subjugation by the Saracens. On the death of Pepin, in 768, his dominions were divided between his sons Charles and Carloman, the former taking Neustria, Burgundy, and Provence. To these was soon added by conquest Aquitaine. In 770 Charles married the daughter of Desiderius, king of the Lombards, but repudiated her in the following year, and married Hildegarde, a German princess. At the close of 771, by the death of Carloman, Charles became sole King of the Franks, his kingdom, Francia, extending from the English Channel to the Mediterranean. In 772 he made war on the Saxons; and this was the beginning of a conflict which was not really ended till 803, when a last revolt was suppressed. Conquest and compulsory conversion to the Christian faith were the objects of these wars; and the Pagans were treated sometimes humanely, sometimes with remorseless cruelty. In 782 Charles had 4,500 of them massacred.

In 773, when the Lombards were threatening Rome, the Pope invited the aid of Charles, as his predecessor had that of Pepin. Charles passed the Alps, overthrew the Lombard kingdom, and assumed the crown himself (774). He was acknowledged as Patrician of the Romans, and bore rule over nearly all Italy. In the next few years he was fighting, now

the Saxons, now insurgents in Italy; then the Saracens in Spain, conquering parts of the country, but was defeated by the Gascons while repassing the Pyrenees at Roncesvalles. This battle, and the death of the hero Roland, became a favourite theme of romance and song, and the nucleus of a mass of legendary lore. Three years later he went to Rome, and had his two sons crowned by the Pope. Afterwards we find him beyond the Elbe, victorious over the Avars. In this period of his active life he projected a canal to join the North Sea and the Euxine. His power was felt in the English kingdoms. Just before Offa of Mercia extended his sway in all directions, Boniface had been preaching to the Pagans in Germany, and English affairs began to interest the Franks. The policy of Charles led him to receive at his Court the enemies of Offa, and among the refugees was Egbert, afterwards king of the English. It seemed likely that war might break out between Offa and Charles, but this was happily averted by the influence of an English scholar present at the Court of Charles, Alcuin.

For Charles was not a mere conqueror, a ravager and slaughterer, like Timur and Attila. He was a civiliser, too. His views were large and his aims high. He desired to see education and discipline spread among his subjects, and by various edicts, and by the establishment of schools and encouragement of learned men, he provided for this. Roman culture had long perished in Gaul; a new culture had arisen, the monastic, with poor aims and miserable limitations; and this, too, was lost. And now another beginning was made in the Palace School, and others on like bases. Especially noteworthy is the Capitulary of the year 787, which provided for a higher standard of education, and is called by Ampère "the Charter of Modern Thought."

The Capitularies of Charlemagne bear the marks, it must be confessed, of a rude and primitive age. Three or four specimens are cited by historians.

"Covetousness doth consist in desiring that which others possess, and in giving away nought of that which oneself possesseth; according to the Apostle, it is the root of all evil."

"Hospitality must be practised."

"If mendicants be met with, and a labourer not with their hands, let none take thought about giving unto them."

“Beware of venerating the names of martyrs falsely so called, and the memory of dubious saints.”

In Guizot's ‘History of Civilization in France,’ there is a list of the names and works of twenty-three men of the eighth and ninth century who have escaped oblivion by being found grouped around Charlemagne. “Those whom he did not employ at a distance, formed a learned and industrious society, a school of the palace, devoted rather to conversation than teaching. Two of its great men, Alcuin and Eginhard, have remained justly celebrated. Alcuin was the favourite and learned adviser of Charlemagne. ‘If your zeal were imitated,’ he said to the king, ‘one might see arise in France a new Athens—the Athens of Christ.’ The members of this school had all assumed illustrious pagan names:—Alcuin called himself *Flaccus*; Angilbert, *Homer*; Theodulph, *Pindar*. Charlemagne called himself, from Hebrew history, *David*; while Eginhard was *Bezaleel*,” &c.

Having thus won his way to a true overlordship of almost all Western and part of Central Europe, Charles went once more to Rome, in 800; and there, at the hands of the chief of the Western Church, he received recognition as Chief of the Western Empire. The Roman Empire was now finally divided, and in 803 a treaty was concluded, by which the limits of the two empires were defined. The German emperors did not make Rome their seat of government, but henceforth coronation at Rome by the Pope was an indispensable condition of the imperial dignity. In 806, in a diet held at Thionville, a plan was prepared for the division of the Western Empire, on the death of Charles, between his three sons. It was frustrated by the deaths of two of them. In 813 he associated his son Ludwig (Lewis) with him in the empire, and in January, 814, Charles died at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), and his remains were interred with great pomp in the cathedral.

On occasion of a visit of Frederick Barbarossa, in 1165, to the tomb of Charles the Great, whom he professed to take for his model, Charles was canonised by the anti-Pope, Paschal III. In 1215, Frederick the Second was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, and after a solemn mass in the cathedral he placed the bones of his great predecessor Charles in a precious reliquary of silver, which is still preserved under the dome.

The most trustworthy account of this great man is the ‘*Vita Caroli Magni*,’ by his contemporary and friend, Eginhard.

CHARLEMAGNE

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



742	DATE OF BIRTH.		
754	CROWNED BY POPE STEPHEN II.	AGE 12
768	WITH CARLOMAN, KING OF FRANCE	„	26
769	CONQUERED AQUITAINE	„	27
771	SOLE KING	„	29
772	BEGAN WAR WITH THE SAXONS	„	30
773	SUCCESSFUL IN ITALY	„	31
774	VISITED ROME; PROCLAIMED KING OF ITALY	„	32
776	RECEIVED SUBMISSION OF THE SAXONS	„	34
778	SUBDUED NORTHERN SPAIN	„	36
780	DEFEATED SAXONS UNDER WITIKIND	„	38
781	VISITED ROME; SON PEPIN CROWNED KING OF ITALY	„	39
782	REVOLT AND DEFEAT OF SAXONS	„	40
788	CONQUERED BAVARIA	„	46
794	FOUNDED UNIVERSITY OF PARIS; COUNCIL AT FRANKFORT	„	52
796-9	EXPULLED SARACENS; RE-ESTABLISHED THE POPE	„	54-57
800	CROWNED EMPEROR OF THE WEST BY LEO III.	„	58
808	FIRST DESCENT OF THE NORMANS	„	66
813	CALLED FIVE COUNCILS TO REGULATE CHURCH AFFAIRS	„	71
814	DIED AT AIX-LA-CHAPELLE	„	72



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ALFRED

ALFRED THE GREAT

849-901

THE SAXONS

It is really and reasonably astonishing to think that Alfred the Great, whose figure looms so large in the field of history, whose name we pronounce with those of Alexander and Charles, lords of the vastest empires, was king, not of England even, but of the West Saxons only, and of that small part of the little island in which they had established themselves. But limited as his field of action was, he found it large enough for a noble life as man and as king, and for the satisfying of his deepest longing,—"to live worthily, and to leave to the men that come after a remembrance of him in good works."

Alfred was born at Wantage in Berkshire, in 849. He was the grandson of the great Egbert, who had before his death been recognised as over-lord of all the English kingdoms (*Bretwalda*), and the fourth and youngest son of Ethelwulf by his wife Osburga, of the race of Cerdic. He was the favourite son, and in his fifth year was sent to Rome, and was presented as future king to the Pope, Leo IV. Two years later (855) he was again at Rome with his father and remained there a year. In his twentieth year he married. Whatever may have been his father's intention,

Alfred saw his three brothers successively crowned before himself; but on the death of Ethelred, last of the three, he was declared king (871). It was a rough and troublous time. The events of three centuries earlier were repeating themselves. The Northmen, now called the Danes, had for thirty or forty years been again making descents upon the English coasts, and renewing all the old horrors of piratical warfare. Alfred had taken active part with Ethelred in the conflict, and now his most pressing duty was to continue it. In the first year of his reign he fought nine or ten battles with the Danes, apparently unvictorious; for he was obliged to make peace with them, and could not prevent their overrunning the rest of the country and making their winter quarters in London. In 875 he defeated them at sea, and the next year had to make peace with them at Wareham. They then took Exeter; and the Welsh joined them. The city was retaken by Alfred in 877; but the next year his kingdom was overrun by the invaders and he became a fugitive in the woods. He took refuge with a small band at Athelney and built a fort, from which he made occasional attacks on the enemy. In May he defeated them at Ethandun and took their camp. Peace was then concluded at Wedmore; a large part of the country was ceded to the Danes, and Guthrun of East Anglia, their leader, with many other of his best men, were baptised. Wessex was thus delivered, but the work of Egbert was undone, and Alfred was king of Wessex, and nothing more.

He now applied himself to providing for the defence of his kingdom, and the most memorable of his measures was the creation of a fleet. He also provided for its better government, by a code founded on the laws of Ina and Offa, the Ten Commandments and some other parts of the laws of Moses being added to it. The administration of justice was reformed, and as far as possible the "wild injustice of revenge" was suppressed. Alfred had the insight into character which guided him well in selecting the right men to assist him. All his desires and all his energies were concentrated on his task of promoting the welfare of his people. The historian has to honour him as the great example of a king who renounced all personal ambition and lived for his subjects alone. One subject, above all others, that gave him sad and serious thought was the deplorable ignorance that prevailed around him. In contrast with a glorious Past, when Britain was a conspicuous seat of learning, the Present was dark indeed. He established

and directed a school for young nobles; had other schools founded, and summoned competent men from France to teach in them.

This was not all. He knew the worth of books, and determined to bring within the reach of the people such treasures as hitherto the clergy alone had access to. He translated into the English tongue, with such alterations as seemed desirable, the work of Boethius on the 'Consolations of Philosophy,' the 'Pastorale' of Gregory the Great, the 'General History of Orosius,' and Bæda's 'Ecclesiastical History.' With these translations by Alfred the Great, English prose literature begins. And with the 'English Chronicle,' which took its final shape in his reign, possibly under his hand to some extent, English history begins. The Chronicle is "the first vernacular history of any Teutonic people, the earliest and most venerable monument of Teutonic prose." (Green.)

Alfred, however, had more fighting to do yet. In 893 a large body of Danes under Hasting landed in Kent, and fresh struggles tasked his energies for several years. They were defeated by Alfred at Farnham, by Ethelred at Bemfleet; were besieged in Chester and driven away; and in 897 they broke up their army and the war was virtually ended. The war was accompanied and followed by a pestilence which caused a great mortality, disheartening the people more than the war had done. The great king did not long survive. He died October 26th, 901. His remains were interred at Winchester, and his eldest surviving son, Edward, reigned in his stead. In 1693 a beautiful specimen of gold enamelled work, bearing the inscription, "Alfred had me made," was found near the place of his retreat at Athelney. It is known as "Alfred's jewel," and is kept in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford.

Alfred is the best example of the people's hero. Even in the history written in our own day, we read such panegyrics as the following: "What really gave England heart for such a struggle was the courage and energy of the king himself. Alfred was the noblest as he was the most complete embodiment of all that is great, all that is lovable in the English temper. He combined as no other man has ever combined its practical energy, its patient and enduring force, its profound sense of duty, the reserve and self-control that steadies in it a wide outlook and a restless daring, its temperance and fairness, its frank geniality, its sensitiveness to affection, its poetic tenderness, its deep religion;" and Guizot alludes to "his meditative mind," to

"*Alfred poète*," to the "*delicatesse de l'âme d'Alfred*," and concludes by citing from the contemporary chronicle: "The famous, the warlike, the victorious, the protector of widows and orphans, the man most learned in poetry, the king most dear to his people, affable towards all, liberal, prudent, courageous, just, temperate, patient in the midst of continual suffering, careful in revising the sentences of the judges, vigilant in the service of God—Alfred the Shepherd of England, the wisest of the English, Alfred the Truthful, Alfred the Great, Alfred the 'well-beloved.'"

Freeman declares him to be "the most perfect character in history." No man on record had so many virtues and so little alloy. Saint without superstition, scholar without ostentation, conqueror never cruel, prince never cast down by adversity or insolent in triumph. St. Louis is nearest like him, but was not as patriotic, Washington is as virtuous, but has no claims as saint or scholar, William the Silent has not his noble simplicity, Charlemagne was not free from personal ambition. Even Edward I. had not his "pure, simple, childlike disinterestedness."

What Aristides was for the Greeks, St. Louis for the French, Washington for the Americans, that is Alfred for the English: their saint, their demigod, their perfect *model of virtue*.

ALFRED THE GREAT

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



849	BORN AT WANTAGE.		
853	SENT TO ROME; PRESENTED BY THE POPE	AGE	4
855	ACCOMPANIED HIS FATHER TO ROME	„	6
856	RETURNED TO ENGLAND	„	7
866	INVESTED WITH A SUBORDINATE KINGDOM	„	17
868	ASSISTED BURHRED OF MERCIA AGAINST THE DANES	„	19
871	SUCCEEDED HIS BROTHER ETHELRED; DEFEATED DANES AT ASHENDOWN AND WILTON	„	22
875	DEFEATED DANES AT SEA	„	26
876	MADE PEACE WITH DANES AT WAREHAM	„	27
878	DISPOSSESSED OF KINGDOM BY DANES; RETIRED TO ATHELNEY	„	29
880	DANES ACKNOWLEDGED HIS SOVEREIGNTY	„	31
882	AGAIN DEFEATED DANES AT SEA	„	33
885	DEFEATED DANES AT ROCHESTER; TOOK PART OF THEIR FLEET	„	36
886	REBUILT AND FORTIFIED LONDON	„	37
888	COMMENCED ANGLO-SAXON TRANSLATIONS	„	39
893-7	CAMPAIGNS AGAINST HASTING	„	44-48
894	DEFEATED THE DANES AT FARNHAM AND BEMFLEET	„	45
897	CONSTRUCTED NAVY; STOPPED DANISH INVASIONS	„	48
901	DIED	„	52



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WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

1027-1087

THE NORMANS

THE settlement of the Northmen in Gaul and their subsequent change into Normans, is the great event of the tenth century. Freeman, the historian of the Conquest, has in more than one place told us what the Normans were. "The foremost apostles alike of French chivalry and of Latin Christianity, spreading themselves over every corner of the world, and appearing in almost every character. Foremost in devotion, the most fervent votaries of their adopted creed, the most lavish in gifts, the most unwearied in pilgrimages. They were foremost in war, mercenaries, crusaders, plunderers, conquerors. But they had changed their element and their mode of warfare. The mounted knight and unerring bowman had taken the place of the elder tactics which made the fortress of shields invincible. North, south, east, the Norman lances were lifted, and in the most opposite causes. Their conquests brought with them the most opposite results : to enslaved Sicily they gave a line of beneficent rulers; to England a conquering nobility, which in a few generations became truly English.

In the arts of peace the Norman, like his Mahometan prototype, invented nothing, but he learned, adapted, improved and disseminated

everything. He ransacked Europe for scholars, poets, theologians and artists. At Rouen, at Palermo, and at Winchester he welcomed merit in men of every race and every language. He guided Lanfranc and Anselm from Lombardy to Bec, and from Bec to Canterbury. Art under his auspices produced alike the stern grandeur of Caen and Ely, and the brilliant gorgeousness of Palermo and Monreale. In a word, the indomitable vigour of the Scandinavian, joined to the buoyant vivacity of the Gaul, produced the conquering and ruling race of Europe."

The English and the Normans were kindred; they both belonged to the same great race, the Teutonic. Relations, mostly unfriendly, had existed between them for nearly a century before the great invasion by Duke William. English Ethelred had married Norman Emma; both had fled with their children to Normandy when Sweyn the Dane invaded England; their son Edward, the late king, half Norman by birth and wholly Norman by breeding, hated the sound of the English tongue, and went very near, English as he was, making himself a Norman Conquest of his country. For foreign favourites and hangers-on swarmed at his Court, and, to the grief and dismay of the English and their leaders, got possession of the highest offices of church and state. In the very midst of a great agitation caused by this invasion Duke William visited Edward (1051), with a great band of Frenchmen, probably to spy out the land and his chances. But the time was not yet come.

William of Normandy was born in 1027, at Falaise, in the old castle which is still to be seen. He was a son of Duke Robert, by Arletta, a maiden of the town, and bore through life the title of "the Bastard." He was only eight years old when his father died, and his early surroundings were those of treason and turbulence on the part of his barons. At twenty, by a great victory over the rebel lords at Val-ès-Dunes, he became master of his duchy. A series of victories followed, in which he showed himself strong, fierce, and ruthlessly revengeful; a true Northman, but with an intellectual force which justified the epithet of "the Great," given by his contemporaries. It is hardly to be doubted that the lust of conquest among the Normans was at this period stimulated by the reports of the achievements of their kinsfolk under Guiscard in Italy and Sicily. About 1062, or a little later, William got possession of Harold's person, and extorted from him by a trick an oath that he would support his claim to the English crown. On the death of

Edward he made preparations on a vast scale for his enterprise of invasion; preparations not only military but diplomatic. In a great assembly of his lords at Lillebone, he expounded his scheme and demanded their service. Among the embassies which he sent the most important was one to the Pope Alexander II. He sought his sanction for the conquest of England. It was the first instance of the kind. The chief power at Rome was then in the hands of Hildebrand, who eagerly seized the opportunity. A bull was issued authorising the invasion, and a consecrated banner of the Church was presented to the Duke.

The Norman fleet, after a delay of some weeks, caused by bad weather, sailed from St. Valéry on the Somme, Sept. 27, 1066, and reached Pevensey (site of the ancient *Anderida*) the next day. Harold was far away fighting other foes in the north. As soon as the tidings of the Norman landing reached him, he marched rapidly southward. The great battle was fought on the hill of Senlac, not far from Hastings, on Saturday, October 14th. The fighting was heroic on both sides; the slaughter was prodigious. Towards evening Harold fell, and the Norman had won. The hero-king dead, his English nobles fallen with him, and the national army dispersed, no second battle was fought. An attempt was made to set up the boy Edgar the Atheling as king, but in vain. William by rapid and masterly movements compelled submission; and at Christmas he was crowned. A fortress was built, which became the "Tower of London," and the long process of the Conquest was ushered in by a deceptive policy of conciliation.

The new tyranny provoked revolts, and these were severely repressed and punished. The lands were confiscated by wholesale, and feudalism carried to its extreme development. Fortresses were built and garrisons placed in the principal towns. In the winter of 1069-70 was carried out the terrible "harrying" of the north. The whole district beyond the Humber was laid waste, not a single village left, and the ground lay untilled for more than half a century. After sword and fire came famine and pestilence. In 1071 the great conflict was waged in the Isle of Ely, the fen-land, where many of the leaders and patriots had made themselves a "Camp of Refuge." The hero of this last struggle was the outlaw Hereward. The resistance was brave, the resistance of desperate men; but the determination of the Norman was stronger, and the last hope of the English was quenched.

Sixteen years of life and rule still remained to the Conqueror, and they were years full of action and trouble and suffering. His character did not soften with time, and his injustice in some instances was believed to be the cause, by way of divine retribution, of the failures and afflictions of his last years. Meanwhile one conspicuous result of the Conquest was "the good frith (*friede*, peace) which he made in the land," and a still greater was the consolidation of the kingdom which was begun. Changes in the Church went on side by side with the transfer of the lands, and the royal supremacy was rigorously maintained. Many districts of the country were converted into deer-parks and forests, for William "loved the high deer as if he were their father." The formation of "the New Forest" in Hampshire was felt to be the cruellest wrong the Conqueror had done to the English. One of his most memorable acts was the great survey of the land, the record of which forms the famous 'Domesday Book.' This was ordered in 1085.

The end was now drawing near. The ruling passion of the man appeared to be as strong as ever. He must conquer till he die. After holding a great *gemot* on Salisbury Plain, in the summer of 1066, he went to Normandy. He coveted the district called the Vexin, and treated with Philip of France about it. The next year he made war on Philip, harried the Vexin and burnt the town of Mantes. Mad with wrath, he rode among the burning ruins; his horse stumbled and threw him; his hurt was incurable. Borne to his palace at Rouen, and thence for quietness to the priory outside the city, he lay helpless and suffering, but with sound mind, for some weeks. Awed by the approach of another conqueror, he professed himself penitent, proclaimed deliverance for some noble captives, and gave money largely to "pious uses." He died while the minster bells were ringing prime, September 9 or 10, 1087.

Green, 'History of the English People,' thus draws his picture: "The spirit of the sea robbers from whom he sprung seemed embodied in his gigantic form, his enormous strength, his savage countenance, his desperate bravery, the fury of his wrath, the ruthlessness of his revenge." "No knight under heaven was William's peer." "No man could bend William's bow." His mace crashed through a ring of English warriors to the foot of the standard. He rose to his greatest height when other men despaired. "His voice rang out like a trumpet." At the head of his troops he broke through the snowdrifts. "When the townsmen hung raw hides over their

walls in scorn of the tanner's grandson, William tore out his prisoners' eyes, hewed off their hands and feet, and flung them into the town. Of men's love or hate he recked little."

Freeman has depicted the character of William in a twofold light. As regards *goodness*, he was neither the best nor the worst of men; he has no share in the pure glory of Timoleon, Alfred, or Washington, or even in the mingled fame of Alexander, Charlemagne, and Canute; but on the other hand, he is not to be classed with the "scourges of a guilty world," the Nebuchadnezzars, the Swends, the Bonapartes, etc. As regards *greatness*, he "bears a name which must for ever stand among the foremost of mankind." "No man that ever trod this earth was endowed with greater natural gifts; to no man was it ever granted to accomplish greater things. If we look only to the scale of man's acts, without regard to their moral character, we must hail in the victor of Val-ès-dunes, of Varaville, and of Senlac, the restorer of Normandy, the conqueror of England, one who may fairly claim his place in the first rank of the world's greatest men. One feature stands out pre-eminently—he seems to be the embodiment in the highest degree that human nature will allow of the fixed purpose and unbending will. Whatever he decreed, he found means to bring about; whatever he found to do, he did with his might. His warlike exploits, though they set him among the foremost captains of his time, are but a small part of his fame. Many could have led the troops on to victory, but none, in his age, could have shown themselves masters of every branch of statecraft. He knew how to use the noblest and the vilest men as his instruments."

Whatever may have been the character of the man, there can be little doubt that the great act of his life was the most important event of the century and of the whole medieval period. Three conclusions may be safely drawn by the historic student. The most powerful people of the middle ages were the Normans. The Normans made three conquests,—the conquest of Sicily, the conquest of Palestine, and the conquest of England. Of the three it is the last mentioned which is the most significant and upon which the most enduring results have followed.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



1027	BORN AT FALAISE.		
1035	SUCCEEDED HIS FATHER AS DUKE OF NORMANDY.	AGE	8
1047	VICTOR AT VAL-ÈS-DUNES	"	20
1051	VISITED EDWARD THE CONFESSOR	"	24
1054	BATTLE OF MONTEMER	"	27
1056	MADE PEACE WITH HENRY I. OF FRANCE	"	29
1060	HELD COURT AT LILLEBONNE	"	33
1062	EXTORTED FROM HAROLD CESSION OF CLAIMS TO ENGLISH CROWN	"	35
1066	CONQUERED HAROLD AT HASTINGS	"	39
1067	FOUNDED BATTLE ABBEY	"	40
1068	SUPPRESSED INSURRECTION IN THE NORTH	"	41
1069-70	DEVASTATED THE NORTH	"	42-43
1071	CONQUERED HEReward AT ISLE OF ELY	"	44
1072	INVADED SCOTLAND	"	45
1074	WENT TO NORMANDY	"	47
1075	RETURNED AND QUELLED CONSPIRACY	"	48
1078	SON ROBERT REBELLED AGAINST HIM	"	51
1080-1	MARCHED INTO WALES	"	53-54
1085	UNSUCCESSFUL ATTACK ON BRITTANY	"	58
1086	"DOMESDAY BOOK" COMPILED	"	59
1087	MADE WAR ON PHILIP OF FRANCE; DIED AT ROUEN	"	60



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CHARLES V.

CHARLES THE FIFTH

1500—1558

SPANISH SUPREMACY

THE reign of Charles V. almost exactly coincides with the period of the great religious revolution which changed the relations of many of the states of Europe to the Papacy and to each other, and put a new face on the western world. At the time of his birth all western Europe was in communion with the Roman Church. Before he died a large part of western Europe had separated from that communion, and the various churches were also widely separated from each other. In the long complicated series of actions and events which resulted in this change Charles V. was one of the five or six most prominent actors. The vast extent of his dominions, the wealth at his command, and the dignity of emperor made his position the most splendid in Christendom. His power was greater than that of any emperor since Charles the Great, and he was the last great emperor. If we take Luther as the representative of the forces of the Reformation, Charles V. may well stand as representative of the forces opposed to it. On one grand occasion these two met face to face—at the Diet of Worms, in January 1521, Luther then aged thirty-eight, and Charles twenty-one. How Luther bore himself there the world does not forget.

The life of Charles V. naturally divides itself into three distinct portions. The first, extending from his birth to his coronation at Aix-la-Chapelle, is the period of growth, acquisition and ascent; the second, from the breaking out of the war with his rival, Francis I., to his flight from Innsprück, or his abandonment of the siege of Metz a year later, is full of action, conflict and endeavour; and the third, including the last five years of his life, with its successive resignations of dominion, its last scenes in the cloister of St. Juste, is the period of decline and disappointment. This is surely the old text, *Vanitas vanitatum*, once more written out on the grand historic scale.

Charles V. was born at Ghent, February 24th, 1500. He was the son of Philip, Archduke of Austria, and of Joanna, only child of Ferdinand and Isabella, sovereigns respectively of Aragon and Castile. Philip, as the son of Mary of Burgundy, was ruler of the Netherlands; and on his death, in 1506, Charles inherited those provinces and Franche-Comté. Ten years later (1516), on the death of his grandfather Ferdinand, he succeeded to the crowns of Aragon and Castile, with all their possessions both in the old and the new world, among these the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily. And in 1519, on the death of his other grandfather, Maximilian, he was elected emperor. He was brought up and carefully educated in the Netherlands; and only after some delay and with reluctance he quitted the country of his birth and went to Spain in 1517. On his way from Spain to Germany (1520) he landed at Dover and had an interview with Henry VIII. and Wolsey; and on October 23rd he was crowned emperor at Aix-la-Chapelle. It was the year in which Luther burnt the Pope's bull, and Solymán the Great became Sultan of the Ottomans: two formidable powers which Charles would have to reckon with. The next year began his wars with Francis I., who at the battle of Pavia (1525) became his prisoner, and was detained for nearly a year, and then only liberated on hard terms, which he did not keep. Charles took into his service the great Constable de Bourbon, who, in 1527, sacked Rome, the Pope, Clement VII., being kept prisoner in the castle of St. Angelo. Previous to this, troubles had sprung up in Spain, discontent possessing the nobles, the clergy, and the commons. The last were for a time supported, and ultimately abandoned by, the two former classes, and Padilla, leader of the commons, was executed. In 1530, Charles, having made peace with the Pope, and with France, was crowned at Bologna

King of Lombardy and Emperor. In June of the same year he held a Diet at Augsburg, memorable as the occasion of the presentation to him of the Lutheran confession of faith, known as the Confession of Augsburg. His policy towards the Reformation was hostile, but temporising. The new religious movement became too strong to be summarily crushed; and the Emperor had so much else on his hands. Before the year 1530 closed he was confronted with the League of Smalcald, arms and men set for a bulwark of Protestantism. But instead of war came the Compromise of Nürnberg, with concessions and hopes of conciliation. For the rapid advance of the Grand Turk and his magnificent army made it imperative on the Emperor to march against him with a force not inferior. The Sultan could not face the Emperor, and retired within his own dominions.

In 1535 Charles conducted an expedition to Tunis, against the great pirate leader Barbarossa, made a terrible slaughter of Mussulmans, and set free 20,000 Christian slaves. After his return war was renewed with France, a peace was patched up in 1538, and broken in 1542. Between these years a revolt broke out at Ghent, and Charles hastened in person to suppress it. Then followed a fruitless expedition to Algiers; more fighting with the French and the Turks allied against him; and the Peace of Crespi, at which the Emperor and the King of France pledged themselves to destroy the new faith in their respective dominions. This Peace of Crespi (1544) suddenly frustrated an invasion of France by Henry VIII. At the close of the next year met the Council of Trent, and two months later Luther died (Feb. 1546). The Protestants rose in arms the same year; Charles defeated them at Mühlberg and took prisoners Frederick, Elector of Saxony, and Philip, Landgrave of Hesse (April 1547). He gave the electorate to Maurice, a kinsman of Frederick, who played him false for some years, and in 1552 put himself at the head of the Protestants and narrowly missed capturing Charles at Innsprück. While the fathers at Trent were making arrangement between Catholic and Protestant impossible, Charles was still aiming at it; and at the Diet of Augsburg in 1548 had published the "Interim," a project of a common platform, rejected by both parties. Freedom of worship was at last granted to the Protestants by the Treaty of Passau (1552), confirmed three years later by the *Peace of Religion* at Augsburg. In 1552 Henry II. of France had seized the three bishoprics of the empire, Metz, Toul, and Verdun; and Charles led an army to Metz, to retake it;

but after a siege of three months he failed, and withdrew. This was his last appearance in the field. Metz remained in the hands of the French till recovered by the Germans in the war of 1870-71.

The Emperor's task was now well-nigh done. His main aim in life had been hopelessly crossed; his health was broken by care and toil; and energy and hope were gone. To him, "inheritor of church predilections coloured with a religious melancholy," it would seem quite natural to end his days in monastic seclusion. Something like a final flicker of hope appeared in his suggestion (1554) to his son Philip of a marriage with Mary queen of England—once his own marriage with her had seemed possible. The marriage took place, but it was childless. Thenceforth the tale is of honours one by one stripped off, and of burdens one by one dropped. First, in 1554, he gave up the kingdom of Naples and the duchy of Milan to Philip; the next year, in a grand pathetic way, in the hall of the Estates at Brussels, he resigned to him the Netherlands; he was ill, and leaning on the young Prince of Orange—to be by-and-by known as William the Silent—made a short and touching speech, weeping the while. His mother died six months before. In January, 1556, Spain and the Indies passed into the same hands, and in the following August the Imperial dignity was renounced and the crown sent to his brother Ferdinand.

In September, Charles, accompanied by his two sisters, Eleanor and Mary, both queens, quitted the Netherlands and returned to Spain. (Ignatius Loyola had died only a few weeks earlier.) And then, worldly ambition and aims all over, he sought repose in the sequestered monastery of St. Juste.

In the cloistered shades he still took interest in the world he had quitted; remained hostile to the Reformation, and exhorted his children to resist it. In the closing weeks of his life, when mind and body were failing together, he fell deeper and deeper in melancholy and the practice of monkish austerities. It is said that he had his own obsequies performed in his presence in the chapel.

Charles V. died at the convent of St. Juste, September 21, 1558.

CHARLES V.

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



1500	BORN AT GHENT.		
1516	CROWNED KING OF SPAIN	AGE	16
1518	CROWNED KING OF CASTILE	„	18
1520	CROWNED EMPEROR AT AIX-LA-CHAPELLE	„	20
1521	DIET AT WORMS	„	21
1525	FRANCIS I. MADE PRISONER AT BATTLE OF PAVIA	„	25
1526	FRANCIS I. RELEASED	„	26
1527	ROME STORMED	„	27
1529	DIET OF SPIRE; TREATY WITH CLEMENT III.	„	29
1530	DIET OF AUGSBERG	„	30
1535	TOOK TUNIS	„	35
1539	REVOLT IN NETHERLANDS	„	39
1540	REVOLT SUPPRESSED; VISITED FRANCIS I. AT PARIS	„	40
1541	UNSUCCESSFUL EXPEDITION AGAINST ALGIERS	„	41
1542	WAR WITH FRANCE	„	42
1544	BATTLE OF CÉRISOLES	„	44
1545	PEACE OF CRESPIY	„	45
1547	BEGAN HOSTILITIES AGAINST PROTESTANTS	„	47
1553	ABANDONED SIEGE OF METZ	„	53
1556-7	RESIGNATION OF CROWN; RETIRED TO MONASTERY	„	56-57
1558	DIED AT ST. JUSTE	„	58



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WILLIAM THE SILENT

WILLIAM THE SILENT

1533-1584

THE DUTCH REPUBLIC

THE Low Countries, with their hard-won fertile fields, their great cities and seaports, and their industrious, peace-loving population, formed one of the most important parts of the dominions of the king of Spain. The king and his Dutch subjects were ranging themselves on opposite sides in the great controversy, and a struggle was preparing which was to astonish the world. Under the name "Revolt of the Netherlands" the process is recorded in history, and its result was the foundation of "The Dutch Republic." In this war, one of the most famous of all time, the hero of the Dutch people was William the Silent.

William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, founder of the Dutch Republic, was born at Dillenburg in 1533. At the age of eleven he succeeded to the small principality of Orange, and he had also large estates in the Netherlands. His father trained him in the Reformed faith, but at fifteen he was sent to the Court of Charles V. at Brussels, and he renounced Lutheranism. The Emperor thought highly of him, and trusted him early in great matters of state. At the grand ceremony of his abdication in favour of his son Philip II., Charles appeared in the hall leaning on William of Orange. William was entrusted with the command of the army on the French

frontier, and he conducted the secret negotiations for the Treaty of Cateau-Cambresis (1559). He was one of the hostages, the Duke of Alva was another, detained by Henry II. for the due execution of the treaty. The French king, supposing that the prince was in the confidence of Philip, spoke of the plot formed between himself and Philip for the destruction of the Protestants. The prince heard with horror, but kept his countenance and said nothing. Hence the epithet of "The Silent." The news was communicated to the leaders of the Reformed party, and although an open breach was deferred, resistance to the Spanish designs was strengthening. In 1564, chiefly through the influence of William, the great minister Granvella was removed. Edicts against the Protestants were multiplied, but the prince, although still a Catholic, refused to execute them in his own provinces. In 1567 he suppressed an insurrection at Antwerp, and the same year, on the approach of Alva to assume the government, he resigned his offices and retired to his Nassau estates. When summoned before the dread "Blood Council," he did not attend, was consequently proscribed, his estates confiscated, and his son taken as a hostage to Spain.

Various military operations followed during 1568-69, and by gradual approaches the prince joined the Protestant party. In April, 1572, Dutch privateers, commissioned by him, took Briel, and the insurrection of the provinces broke out. In the midst of the consequent operations fell the awful "Day of St. Bartholomew," and help from France failed. The patriot army was disbanded, and the tide ran in favour of the Spaniards. The memorable sieges of Haarlem and Leyden followed. To relieve Leyden, William had the dikes cut, and flooded the enemy out. His authority was now generally recognised, and the feeling towards him expressed itself in the endearing appellation "Father William." Conferences were held which led to nothing; attempts to win over the prince were made by Don John, Alva's successor, but he could not be trusted. A league against the Spaniards was formed at Ghent in 1576, and there was a futile intervention of Queen Elizabeth. But the crowning achievement of William the Silent was the League of seven provinces for mutual defence, named in history "Union of Utrecht," and considered the foundation of the Dutch Republic. It was formally constituted in January, 1579, and on July 26, 1581, the independence of the United Provinces was proclaimed at the Hague. This success was unpardonable. Philip II., who had vowed never to grant any of the changes demanded, or to limit the powers of the Inquisition, and had expressed his

fanaticism in the maxim, "Better not reign at all than reign over heretics," and had declared that "he would sacrifice a hundred thousand lives if he had them rather than submit to a single change in matters of religion," now set his seal to these fiendish resolves by confirming by proclamation the decree of the Inquisition which, in February, 1568, sentenced all the inhabitants of the Netherlands to death as heretics! After the Union of Utrecht Philip set a price on the head of the Prince of Orange—25,000 crowns and a patent of nobility for his assassination. The ban was published in March, 1580. Several attempts were consequently made, and at last, on July 10, 1584, one Balthasar Gerard succeeded in getting into the prince's house, and shot him dead. The assassin was tortured and beheaded a few days later; but his family were ennobled by Philip, and the estates of the murdered prince were given to them. William was tall and handsome, of dark complexion, with symmetrical features, high forehead, and rich brown eyes. Although he was named "the Silent," and justified the title by his capacity of habitual dissimulation and holding his tongue, there was nothing morose about him. He was naturally of a gay and lively disposition. He was four times married, and left three sons and many daughters. His fourth wife was Louise, daughter of the famous Huguenot leader, Coligny. From their son, Frederic Henry, descended William III. of England, who was great-grandson and last male descendant of the Founder of the Dutch Republic.

A monument to the Silent Prince, in the form of a tower, was erected at Dillenburg, his birthplace, in 1875.

MOTLEY'S ESTIMATE OF WILLIAM THE SILENT.—"We are not to regard William of Orange on the threshold of his career, by the light diffused from a somewhat later period. In no historical character is the law of constant development and progress better illustrated. At twenty-six his foot was hardly on the first step of that difficult ascent which was to rise before him all his lifetime. He was rich, powerful, of sovereign rank, and contained within him the germs of moral and intellectual greatness. He was nominally a Catholic, but troubled himself little with doctrines. His determination to protect a multitude of his subjects from horrible deaths proceeded not from sympathy with their religious sentiments, but from a generous detestation of murder. He directed his thoughts towards other things than religion. Banquets, masquerades, tournaments, the chase, interspersed with the routine of official duties, civil and military, filled up his time. His hospitality like his fortune was almost regal. In his hospitable palace at Brussels

the feasting continued night and day : the breakfast tables were spread from early morn till noon, and the dinner and supper tables were daily banquets for multitudes of guests, among whom the highest nobles and men of lower degree, found themselves welcomed with a charming and affable grace. William was gentle and agreeable in his speech, and could turn the gentlemen of the Court as he wished, and had manners at once familiar and dignified."

Such in the year 1560 was William of Orange, a generous, stately, magnificent, powerful grandee.

"His firmness was allied to his piety. His constancy in bearing the whole weight of as unequal a struggle as men have ever undertaken, was the theme of admiration even to his enemies. The rock in the ocean was the favourite emblem by which his friends expressed their sense of his firmness. From the time when, as a hostage in France, he first discovered the plan of Philip to plant the Inquisition in the Netherlands, up to the last moment of his life, he never faltered in his determination to resist that iniquitous scheme. This resistance was the labour of his life. To exclude the Inquisition, to maintain the ancient liberties of his country, was the task which he appointed to himself when a youth of three and twenty. Never deluding himself or others with the usual phraseology of enthusiasts, he accomplished the task, with such sacrifices as few men have ever been able to make, for the disinterested benevolence of the man was as prominent as his fortitude. In his country's cause he became nearly a beggar as well as an outlaw. He poured out his revenues like water, refused a hearing to the tempting offers of the royal government, and only accepted in the last days of his life, when refusal had become impossible, the sovereignty over the provinces. He died as he had lived, for his country: 'God pity this poor people,' were his last words.

"His intellectual faculties were of the highest order. He had the exact, practical, and combining qualities which make the great commander. Of the soldier's great virtues—constancy in disaster, devotion to duty, hopefulness in defeat, no man ever possessed a larger share. He was a conqueror in the loftiest sense, for he conquered liberty and a national existence for a whole people. He was the first statesman of the age; he possessed a ready eloquence which could convince or persuade. He wrote and spoke well French, German, Flemish, Spanish, Italian, Greek."

WILLIAM THE SILENT

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



1533	BORN AT DILLENBERG.		
1544	SUCCEEDED RÉNE AS PRINCE OF ORANGE . . .	AGE	11
1551	MARRIED ANNE OF EGMONT	„	18
1555	WAS SENT TO COURT OF CHARLES V.	„	22
1559	EMPLOYED BY PHILIP II. TO NEGOTIATE WITH HENRY II.	„	26
1561	MARRIED A SECOND WIFE	„	28
1563	REMONSTRATED AGAINST TRANVELLA'S PRO- CEEDINGS	„	30
1567	SUPPRESSED CALVINIST INSURRECTION; RETIRED TO NASSAU	„	34
1568	ORGANISED AN ARMY; UNSUCCESSFUL IN BRABANT	„	35
1569	JOINED THE HUGUENOTS UNDER COLIGNY . . .	„	36
1572	OPPOSED THE SPANIARDS	„	39
1574	SAVED LEYDEN BY CUTTING THE DYKES . . .	„	41
1575	MARRIED A THIRD WIFE	„	42
1576	“PACIFICATION OF GHENT”	„	43
1577	ENTERED BRUSSELS; CALLED “FATHER WILLIAM”	„	44
1578	PROJECTED UNION OF UTRECHT	„	45
1580	REWARD OFFERED FOR HIS HEAD BY PHILIP II. .	„	47
1584	ASSASSINATED AT DELFT	„	51



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RICHELIEU

RICHELIEU

1585-1642

THE FRENCH MONARCHY

ARMAND JEAN DU PLESSIS, Cardinal, Duc de Richelieu, the renowned Minister of France under Louis XIII., was born in Paris, being a son of François Du Plessis, lord of Richelieu in Touraine, and Grand Provost of France. He was educated at the College de Navarre for the profession of arms, but his career was unexpectedly altered by the determination of his brother Alphonse, Bishop of Luçon, to resign the dignities of the Church in order to serve God in the solitude of the cloister. It was now represented to the young Armand that an episcopal see, which had also been occupied by his great-uncle, ought to remain in the family. He willingly responded to a vocation which in the eyes of his parents was obvious, and applied himself to theological studies with such extraordinary ardour that at twenty years of age he was admitted to the degree of Doctor, after having sustained his theses, in rochet and purple cape, like a bishop designate. Fearing lest his youth might cause delay in the issuing of the Bulls, he hastened to Rome and delivered before the Holy Father a Latin harangue which removed all objections on the score of age. He was consecrated in his twenty-second year by the Cardinal de Givry in the

presence of Pope Paul V. On his return to France he occupied himself with the conversion of heretics, the instruction of the clergy, and the reform of abuses. His preaching edified his diocese and the Court. Indeed, he appears to have devoted himself exclusively to his ecclesiastical functions up to the time of the meeting of the States-General in 1614, when he sat as deputy of the clergy of Poitou. His eloquence was recognised, and he was chosen to harangue the King on the subject of the grievances of the clergy. In his speech he adroitly referred to the insignificance of the young King, Louis XIII., while he praised the conduct of his mother, Maria de' Medici, who, gratified by the flattery, prepared the young prelate's way to fame and fortune. From that time Richelieu habitually resided at the Court.

In 1616 he entered the Council of State as Secretary for War and Foreign Affairs, notwithstanding the decided antipathy of the King. After the assassination of Marshal d'Ancre, the favourites of the King gained the ascendancy, but Richelieu's far-seeing ambition induced him to follow the Queen-Mother into exile at Blois. Becoming suspected, however, he soon retired to a priory near Mirebeau, where he composed a "Defence of the Principal Points of the Catholic Faith," which he dedicated to the King. In spite of his reserved conduct he was considered dangerous in his diocese, and accordingly he was relegated to Avignon, where he remained a year, disarming his enemies, and writing "*De la Perfection du Chrétien*," a book which passed through more than thirty editions, and was translated into several languages, even into Arabic.

In 1619 the King recalled Richelieu, and sent him to Angoulême, where he persuaded the Queen-Mother to a reconciliation, which was concluded in 1620. In consequence of this treaty the Duke de Luynes obtained for him a Cardinal's hat from Pope Gregory XV. Richelieu, continuing his services after the Duke's decease, was readmitted into the Council through the interest of the Queen, and almost against the will of the King. Soon afterwards he rose to the premiership, and entered upon a policy which has secured for him a place among the greatest statesmen in modern history. That policy may be summed up in three principal designs combined for the consolidation of the monarchy and the greatness of France:—first, the consummation of the work of Louis XI., by the extinction of the last remains of feudalism and the full subjection of the

high nobility to the royal power ; secondly, the subjugation of Protestantism in France, where it had assumed a character as much political as religious, threatening to create a State within the State ; thirdly, the abasement of the House of Austria, by crushing its ambition for universal domination, and, consequently, the elevation of the power of France abroad on the ruins of her formidable rival.

The Cardinal in reality reigned over France for a period of eighteen years (1624-1642). His life was a continued struggle, in which he displayed as much courage as genius. Louis XIII., weak and distrustful, doubtless admired the grandeur of the ideas of Richelieu, and, discontented and trembling, allowed himself to be subjugated by the force of the Cardinal's will, sacrificing, in the interest of the State, relatives, friends, courtiers, his personal prejudices, and even his antipathies. This is true ; but up to the very last the Cardinal could never be certain of his victory over this sickly and rebellious spirit, and the King, a few months before his death, was still conspiring with the young Marquis de Cinq-Mars against his Minister. "The four feet square of the King's cabinet," said Richelieu, with reason, "give me more trouble and disquietude than all the cabinets of Europe."

In his hands the Government soon assumed a tone of vigour and decision. He concluded a treaty of marriage between the Prince of Wales (afterwards Charles I.) and Henrietta, the French King's sister, in spite of the efforts of Rome and Spain, and equally disconcerted those Courts by sending an army and preventing the projected union with the Milanese. He next turned his arms against the French Calvinists, who were become a kind of independent republic within the kingdom. Having first secured the friendship of Holland by pecuniary aid, he obtained the alliance of the Dutch and the English against their brother Protestants of Rochelle, and expelled them from the Isle of Rhé. One of the principal enemies he had to contend with was Gaston, Duke of Orleans, the King's brother. In consequence of a conspiracy entered into by this Prince to assassinate the Minister and effect great changes at Court, Richelieu arrested several of his confidants, and brought some of them to the scaffold. In 1627 war broke out with England, chiefly in consequence of the insolent vanity of the Duke of Buckingham ; and the Calvinists of Rochelle were induced to favour the English. Richelieu thereupon determined to reduce to submission a town

which had long been the seat of an independent power, often leagued with the enemies of the kingdom; and after the Duke of Buckingham had been obliged, with disgrace, to quit the Isle of Rhé, Rochelle was invested on all sides. Richelieu in person took the command of the siege, and in order to prevent the arrival of succours by sea, he caused to be constructed a vast mole in the ocean, by which all communication from abroad was cut off. After a resistance of eleven months Rochelle submitted to famine, and the Protestants, having lost their great bulwark and all their other strong places, were rendered incapable of again acting as an armed party. It is to the credit of the policy and the moderation of Richelieu that they were still allowed the free exercise of their religion.

His foreign politics had chiefly in view the humiliation of the House of Austria, and by his treaty (1631) with Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, he enabled that great King to pursue those plans which brought the Empire to the brink of ruin.

Gaston, Duke of Orleans, in his retreat, with the Duke of Lorraine, whose sister he had married for his second wife, plotted to excite a civil war for the expulsion of Richelieu and his own return in consequence. Gaston entered France, accompanied by the Duke de Montmorency, and was defeated at Castelnaudary. Montmorency was taken prisoner, and expiated his crime on the scaffold. The Queen-Mother herself was put under arrest, her servants were all sent to the Bastille, and she finally ended her days in exile at Cologne. The King supported his Minister in all these severities.

Assuredly Richelieu was a great Minister. He did much for France, but nevertheless his government was not popular, for he was neither loved, like Henri IV., nor respected, like Louis XIV. All trembled before him; and at his death the people, as if delivered from oppression, celebrated the happy event by bonfires and other manifestations of joy.

Richelieu was a patron of letters. He built the Sorbonne, founded the Royal Printing House, the Jardin des Plantes, and the French Academy. The authenticity of his "Political Testament," which was attacked by Voltaire, has been victoriously defended by Fonce-magne.

RICHELIEU

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



1585	BORN AT PARIS.		
1607	MADE BISHOP OF LUCON	AGE	22
1614	ALMONER TO MARIE MEDICI; DEPUTY TO STATES- GENERAL	„	29
1616	SECRETARY OF STATE	„	31
1617	EXILED TO BLOIS	„	32
1618	EXILED TO AVIGNON	„	33
1622	CREATED CARDINAL	„	37
1624	MEMBER OF COUNCIL	„	39
1628	TOOK ROCHELLE	„	43
1629	FIRST MINISTER OF STATE	„	44
1630	COMMANDED IN ITALY; TRIUMPH OVER ENEMIES .	„	45
1635	FOUNDED “ACADÉMIE DE FRANCE”	„	50
1638	LOST HIS AGENT, FATHER JOSEPH	„	53
1642	DIED	„	57
1649	“MEMOIRS.”		
1789	REMAINS EXHUMED AND MOSTLY LOST.		
1866	RELIC RECOVERED AND PRESERVED AT SORBONNE.		



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CROMWELL

CROMWELL

1599-1658

THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION

"THE success by which the English Revolution was crowned," writes Guizot, "has not only been permanent, but has borne a double fruit; its authors founded constitutional monarchy in England, and their descendants founded the republic of the United States. At the close of last century France entered on the path thus opened up. Europe now rushes headlong in the same direction. The Revolution that took place in Germany in the sixteenth century was religious, not political; that in France in the eighteenth was political, not religious. It was the peculiar felicity of England in the seventeenth century that the spirit of religious faith and the spirit of political liberty reigned together, and she entered upon the two revolutions at the same time."

The master spirit of this double revolution came of a good family in Huntingdon, in the eastern counties. As a child he was sent to school, then passed a short time at Cambridge, and studied law in London. As a youth, it is said, he was turbulent; but at twenty-one occurred his marriage and conversion, when he settled at Ely, and became occupied with the cares of a family and the duties of a farmer's life. He joined the

Puritans, became extremely devout. His conversion made him hypochondriac and melancholy. Stories are told of the long prayers in the morning delaying his men from their work, of the midnight summons of the family physician without sufficient reason.

In 1628 he represented his borough in Parliament, and the meagre accounts of his public life at this time show him inveighing with acrimony against popery and prelacy, and defending the poor and wronged against the rich and powerful. But his political history did not really begin until the meeting of the Long Parliament in 1640, when ranged on the side of his celebrated relative Hampden, he warmly supported all the measures that tended to disarm royalty and invest Parliament with the supreme power. No one foresaw the great future in store for him. He appeared only an ordinary country gentleman, skilled neither in intrigue nor speech, showing himself excessively zealous in his opinions, and often carried to extremes by them. He had a burly figure and ruddy face ; his coat was rough and his linen not scrupulously clean ; his voice was sharp and irritating, manner vehement, and he had sometimes to be called to order.

The utmost that was aimed at by the Parliament at that time was to draw to themselves more of governmental power, dreaming possibly of the triumph of Presbyterianism over the Established Church. Cromwell, vehement and zealous Puritan as he was, had higher hopes, and though no doubt wishing liberty of conscience for all, he desired the preponderance of his own special opinions. At the beginning of the strife between Charles I. and the Parliament Cromwell obtained a commission as captain of cavalry, and set about raising troops in his own county. He remarked the inferiority of the parliamentary soldiers, who were for the most part mercenaries, serving-men to the gentlemen of the royal army, and then he discovered to what force he must appeal. The chivalrous spirit was wanting, he must appeal to the religious ; to fight against men of honour he must have men of religion. On this plan he began to recruit his squadrons from the ranks of the farmers, men hardy and used to labour and fatigue, who went into the war with the ardour of religious conviction. " He sought good fighting men among the godly farmers of the associated counties," and the successes which his Ironsides gained over the Royalists at Marston Moor and Naseby caused him to be named lieutenant-general of all the forces.

The Parliament soon became uneasy at this position of affairs, and tried

to curtail his power, and make terms with the half-conquered king. Cromwell, secure in the favour of the army, proposed and caused to be adopted the famous Self-denying Ordinance which interdicted all members of Parliament from military charge. Yet the army could not do without Cromwell, and by a special dispensation he was allowed to keep his own. By the Self-denying Ordinance the army was rid of its grandes, remodelled, and the war pushed forward with fresh vigour.

Charles I., after the battle of Naseby, had been taken and kept a prisoner at Holmby, but continued to negotiate with both Parliament and army, hoping to destroy one by the other. The interception of a private letter, in which the king acknowledged himself as deceiving the Puritans, whom he intended to hang when he came into power, renewed hostilities, and at Pembroke, Preston, Warrington, and Wigan, victories were won by the Puritans and terminated the second civil war, Scotland submitting.

The great year 1648 showed England split into many parts: "a King not to be bargained with, a great Royalist party, a great Presbyterian party, at the head of which is London, and lastly, a headstrong, mutinous Republican and Levelling party." The army, menaced with dissolution by Parliament, raised themselves against it, and expelled over a hundred of its hostile members. "They are malignants," said Cromwell, "and the House must be purged of them. Thou wilt go with a troop of horse and a regiment of foot, and thou wilt take those men away; they may sit no longer." Colonel Pride, with his soldiers, surrounded the House, and when it adjourned seized the obnoxious members one by one as they passed out, and marched them off. The remainder passed the bill for the king's trial.

Then came the order for execution: "Whereas, Charles Stuart, King of England, is convicted of high treason and sentenced to have his head severed from his body, these are to will and require you to see the said sentence executed in the open street before Whitehall.—Signed, John Bradshaw, Thomas Grey, Oliver Cromwell, and fifty-six others." A deed reckoned by Carlyle as the most daring action any body of men with clear consciences ever set themselves to do. The king was executed. Parliament proclaimed that "the people of England are hereby constituted, made, established and confirmed to be a Commonwealth, a free state, and shall henceforth be governed as a Commonwealth, or free state, by the supreme authority of this nation, the representatives of the people in Parliament, and

that without any king or House of Lords." "Forasmuch as all power is originally and in reality vested in the collective people of this nation, the free choice of their representatives, and their consent is the sole basis of a lawful government, while the end of government is the common weal." Elections were to be held every two years; the representatives were to legislate, administer, execute, yet only as the servants of the people. There was to be equality before the law; no one to serve in the army against his will; government to have no decision in matters of religion, etc., etc.

Cromwell was chosen one of the four members of the executive council; but he had to set out immediately to quell the rebellion in Ireland. On his return he was received with enthusiasm. Parliament decreed him new honours, and gave him the palaces of Whitehall and St. James's for residences. In accepting all this the Puritan soldier was not dazzled, but continued the same simple hero. In 1650 he was called to Scotland, where Charles II. had been proclaimed king; gained the battle of Dunbar, and marching south, that of Worcester, settled the disturbances by imposing on all sects mutual tolerance and liberty of conscience, and returned to London. Thus he "tamed savage Ireland, and subdued the haughty Scottish clans. Oliver was Scotland's friend, as he was Ireland's." His correspondence on this point is significant. The Scotch say: "The Lord-General shall not limit the preachers that they must not speak against the enormities of civil power;" they object to promiscuous preaching by soldiers and laity. Cromwell retorts, "We look to ministers as helpers, and not lords over God's people." "Are ye troubled that Christ is preached?" he asks. "Truly I think he that prays and preaches best will fight best."

In April 1653 came the dissolution of Parliament. That House being highly offended at the presumption of the army, the Lord-General was compelled to do a thing which, as he said, "made the very hairs of his head to stand on end." Hastening to the House with three hundred soldiers, and the marks of violent indignation on his countenance, he entered; stamping with his foot, which was the signal for the soldiers to enter, the place was immediately filled with armed men. Addressing himself to the members: "For shame," said he; "get you gone; give place to honest men; to those who will faithfully discharge their trust. You are no longer a Parliament; I tell you you are no longer a Parliament; the Lord has done with you." Sir Harry Vane exclaiming against this conduct, "Sir Harry," cried Cromwell,

in a loud voice, "Oh, Sir Harry Vane; the Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane." He then in a violent manner reproached certain of the members by name with their vices. "It is you," continued he, "that have forced me to do this. I have sought the Lord night and day that he would rather slay me than put me upon this work." "Then," pointing to the mace, "Take away that bauble!" cried he. After which, turning out all the members and clearing the hall, he ordered the doors to be locked, and putting the key in his pocket, returned to Whitehall.

He now convened a Parliament, which consisted wholly of godly men—his enemies say "the very dregs of the fanatics," Praise God Barbone, and the rest. This Parliament met on the 4th of July, 1653, and Cromwell gave them a long and earnest discourse, with urgent references to Scripture. "Oh! if God could fill your hearts with such a spirit as Moses had, as Paul had Moses could wish to die for his people; wish himself blotted out of God's book. Paul could wish himself accursed for his countrymen after the flesh," etc.

This "Little Parliament" did not succeed. Finding twenty-three thousand causes of from five to thirty years' continuance lying undecided in the Court of Chancery, they tried to abolish Chancery, and proposed to draw up a new code of law, brief and intelligible, like that of New England. All the lawyers in the land rose up against them, and they resigned. Cromwell now became Lord Protector, and governed for eight months, assisted by a council of officers; then a new Parliament was convened by election. Four months later it was dissolved, and then for a year and a half Cromwell carried again upon his own shoulders the weight of the government. He partitioned out the country into military provinces, each under the control of a major-general, who preserved order and taxed the royalists.

Another Parliament was called. The title of King was offered and refused. In 1657 he was officially installed Protector, and one year later he fell ill and died.

"The vigour of Cromwell's government in a great measure legitimized his usurpation." In the interior he established liberty of conscience, reorganised the administration, finances, and education, protected civil liberty, and prevented the exclusive domination of any party. His foreign policy was not without glory, and turned to the advantage of England. He terminated advantageously the war against Holland, raised the English navy

to a high position, made alliance with Mazarin against Spain, and gained Dunkerque. It was under Cromwell that Admiral Blake vanquished Van Tromp and De Ruyter and floated English vessels in waters never before penetrated. He told the Dutch envoys that God had decided against them; that nothing remained for them but to join the mighty English Commonwealth, and in conjunction with it spread abroad the kingdom of God, and set other nations free from their tyrants.

Of the character of Cromwell it has been the fashion to say that he has merited both the reproaches and the eulogies that have been heaped upon him; that he was a strange genius, a complex character where despotism found itself strangely mingled with love of liberty, ambition with simplicity, and tolerance with fanaticism, etc. After reading Carlyle's "Letters and Speeches," it is impossible not to agree with M. Taine, when he says: "Cromwell (with the Puritans) comes out of the trial reformed and renewed. We had seen clearly that he was not simply an ambitious man, a vulgar hypocrite; but we thought of him as a wrangler and a fanatic. We considered the Puritans as sad fools, with narrow and scrupulous brains. Let us leave these worldly ideas and try to enter into their souls. We shall find there a grand sentiment. 'Am I a just man? And if God, who is perfect justice, should judge me at this moment, what judgment would he pass upon me?' Here is the original idea which made the Puritans, and by them the English Revolution. We mock at a Revolution made on account of surplice and chasuble; but there was a sentiment of the divine under these disputes about vestments. To these poor men, farmers and shopkeepers, earnest believers in a sublime and terrible God, this was a greater thing than the manner of adoring Him."

Cromwell's secret is that of Moses and Mahomet, and one which can only be defined as a *nearness to God*. This appears in every word that he speaks, and in his letters upon every page. Writing from Naseby, he says: "When I saw the enemy draw up and march in gallant order towards us, and we a company of poor ignorant men, seeking our order of battle—I could not but smile out to God in praises, in assurance of victory, because God would of things that are not bring to nought things that were." His battle-cry was "The Lord of Hosts." And again he writes: "This is the Lord's doing, and it is marvellous in our eyes." And again: "Let us look to Providences a little, surely they mean somewhat, they hang so together."

Malice, swollen malice against God's people, now called 'saints,' to root out their name; and yet they, the poor saints, getting arms, and therein blessed with defence and more." "Who acts if he resolve not through God to be willing to part with all?"

Earnestness has its degrees; but the degree of Cromwell's was supreme. He was too earnest even to be ambitious. "He goes furthest who knows not whither he is going," was his apophthegm, a saying for which Cardinal Retz declared him a fool. Sanford says: "It is the preference for mixed and limited government to absolutism under any name that constitutes the character of Cromwell as a civil ruler." "A readiness for the duty of the hour, and no restlessness beyond it, appears to be the lesson of Cromwell's life," says Forster.

Lastly, it must be added that, like all Puritans, he was a friend to learning; that he supported the two universities "which have not given so good an account of themselves in all categories, human and divine, before or since;" at Durham he founded a college for literature and all the sciences; his son he directed to the study of history, mathematics, and cosmography. He formed a library, drew to him men of learning, patronised painting, loved music, favoured the Davenant entertainments, was tolerant in religion, regarding Catholics without ill-will, yet earnestly devised the alliance of all the Protestant states.

Cromwell and the Puritans are the true heroes of England; they manifest the original and most noble characters of the English; the practical piety, the government of the conscience, the strong will and indomitable courage. They have re-established England.

C R O M W E L L

C H R O N O L O G Y O F H I S L I F E



1599	BORN AT HUNTINGDON.		
1616	ENTERED CAMBRIDGE	AGE	17
1620	MARRIED	"	21
1628	M.P. FOR HUNTINGDON	"	29
1630	JUSTICE OF THE PEACE	"	31
1640	M.P. FOR CAMBRIDGE, AND IN LONG PARLIAMENT	"	41
1642	CAPTAIN OF HORSE	"	43
1643	DEFEATED THE ROYALISTS AT GAINSBOROUGH .	"	44
1644	AT MARSTON MOOR AND NEWBURY	"	45
1645	WITH FAIRFAX DEFEATED KING AT NASEBY .	"	46
1647	BECAME HEAD OF THE INDEPENDENTS	"	48
1648	AT PEMBROKE, PRESTON AND WIGAN; ENTERED SCOTLAND	"	49
1649	KING EXECUTED; QUELLED INSURRECTION IN IRE- LAND	"	50
1650	CAPTAIN-GENERAL; DEFEATED SCOTCH AT DUNBAR	"	51
1651	DEFEATED CHARLES II. AT WORCESTER	"	52
1652	DUTCH WAR BEGAN	"	53
1653	BECAME LORD PROTECTOR; DISSOLVED THE "RUMP"; CALLED "THE LITTLE" PARLIAMENT	"	54
1655	SUCCESSFUL WAR WITH SPAIN	"	56
1656	SECOND PARLIAMENT; INTERFERED ON BEHALF OF VAUDOIS	"	57
1657	INSTALLED IN PROTECTORSHIP	"	58
1658	DIED AT WHITEHALL	"	59



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PETER THE GREAT

PETER THE GREAT

1672-1725

THE RUSSIAN MONARCHY

WAS son of the Czar Alexis Michaelowitz by a second wife. Alexis dying in 1676, Feodor, his eldest son by his first wife, succeeded to the throne, and died in 1682 without issue. Upon his decease, Peter, though but ten years of age, was proclaimed Czar, to the exclusion of Ivan, his elder brother, who was an imbecile youth. The Strelitzes, who were the body-guard of the Czars, made an insurrection in favour of Ivan, at the instigation of the Princess Sophia, who, being his own sister, hoped to enjoy a larger share of authority under him than if the Imperial power were entrusted solely to her half-brother Peter. After much blood had been shed the matter was compromised, and it was agreed that the two brothers should jointly share the Imperial dignity, with Sophia as regent.

Peter showed that he possessed brilliant talents, but up to this time scarcely any pains had been taken with his education. This deficiency he supplied by an extreme curiosity and an ardent desire to learn, and after having received for some time lessons in the military art and in mathematics from a lieutenant of Strasburg, he had the good fortune to form the acquaintance of Lefort, a native of Geneva, who initiated him into the

secrets of the sciences and of civilisation, and who, by showing him how far Muscovy was in these respects behind all the countries of Europe, stimulated his zeal and his boundless ambition.

Lefort took fifty of the noble youths who surrounded the Czar, and joined in their amusements and pleasures in order that he might form them into a regular military company, through all the ranks of which Peter successively passed. The Strelitzes looked upon all this as the mere amusement of a young prince; but the Czar, who saw they were too formidable, and entirely in the interest of the Princess Sophia, had secretly a design of crushing them, which he wisely thought could not be better effected than by securing to himself a body of troops more strictly disciplined and on whose fidelity he could more fully rely. In 1689 he married Eudoxia Federovna, of the family of Lapuhkin. A religious ceremony, at which Sophia wished to appear with her two brothers, adorned like them with the attributes of autocracy, hastened the rupture between her and Peter, who having reached the age of seventeen, thought it was time for the functions of the regent to cease. She reckoned on the support of the Strelitzes, and armed herself with the authority of the elder brother in order to defend her power. A fresh struggle ensued, in the course of which Peter, warned that his life was in danger, took refuge in the monastery of Troïtza, whither he was followed by the Czarina, his mother. The foreigners in the service of Russia, with General Gordon, a Scotchman, at their head, espoused his cause. With a firmness beyond his years he resisted the attempts made by Sophia to extort concessions from him. She was compelled to submit, and was forced to take the veil in a convent which she had founded. On the 11th of October 1689, Peter made his entry into Moscow. Ivan appeared before his brother to compliment him, and the latter, being moderate as well as firm, allowed Ivan to retain the external signs of sovereignty, and even the precedence in rank, but he took good care to reserve to himself the exercise of power. It is from this period that the memorable reign of Peter really dates.

That reign, which began or renewed everything in Russia, is unique in history. Never before did a more energetic will struggle with greater courage against every imaginable obstacle. To overcome them and to be equal to the task of creating or transforming everything, there was required an almost superhuman force, and perhaps also that unruly, sometimes savage, passion, which is a blemish in this imposing life, and which prevents our

concurrence in the opinion of a Russian historian who terms Peter the Great "one of the most illustrious ornaments of the human race." This is not the place to enter into all the details of a reign so replete with events that thirty-six years seem hardly capable of comprising them. It will be sufficient to sketch the main features of the reign, which may be conveniently divided into four periods. The first, from 1689 to 1700, is that of the personal development of Peter, who, while organising the army, was nevertheless opposed to the idea of reforms, and was solely occupied in increasing his stock of knowledge by study, experience, and the example of others. In the second period, from 1700 to 1709, the struggle arose, externally as well as internally, with the preponderance of foreign States, and with the ignorance and prejudices of his own subjects. In the third, from 1709 to 1721, Peter, confident in himself and triumphant, raised Russia, until then barbarous, unknown, and plunged in an Asiatic apathy, to the rank of a great European Power. Lastly, the fourth period, from 1721 to 1725, shows us the Czar rejoicing in the work he had accomplished, reposing after his vast exertions, but affording also the spectacle of a decline hastened by immoderate indulgence in drink—of a volcano casting forth its last flames which finally consume itself.

The first care of Peter was to organise a permanent army according to European tactics, and he soon found himself surrounded by 20,000 well-drilled troops, whose numbers were afterwards augmented to 100,000. At the same time he turned his attention to the creation of a fleet. He laid the foundation of a navy, which eventually consisted of twenty ships of the line, by employing Dutch and Venetian shipwrights to build several small vessels on lake Peipus. He learned seamanship by cruising on board Dutch and English ships at Archangel, the only seaport Russia then possessed; and he sent young Russians to Italy and Holland for the same purpose. In 1696 he besieged and took the city of Azov from the Turks, and about the same time repudiated his wife on account of her opposing his plans.

In 1698 he sent an embassy to Holland and went himself incognito in the retinue. He entered himself in the India Admiralty Office at Amsterdam, and worked in the yard as a ship-carpenter, under the name of Master Peter. Then he came to England, where he made himself a complete master in the art of shipbuilding, by studying its principles mathematically, which he had no opportunity of learning in Holland. From England he proceeded to

Vienna, but intelligence that Sophia had roused the Strelitzes to rebellion hastened his return to Moscow. Improved by the view of foreign countries, Peter now displayed to the world the enlightened views of his capacious mind. He liberally invited the most learned among distant nations to seek an honourable residence in Russia, and to instruct his uncivilised subjects in the various arts of life. In 1700 he declared war against Charles XII. of Sweden, and, though defeated, he persevered with undaunted courage, observing : "Though I know I must be overcome for a great while, my armies will at last be taught to conquer." In the midst of his distress in Poland he formed the project of erecting a new metropolis, and after he had added to his dominions the best parts of Livonia and Ingria, he in 1703 laid the foundations of St. Petersburg. At last the battle of Pultowa, in 1709, crowned his earnest wishes, and he saw the long-victorious Swedes conquered, and their heroic leader Charles obliged to fly. In consequence of this victory Peter secured the possession of Livonia and Ingria, to which he added part of Pomerania and Finland ; but the intrigues of Charles XII. at the Turkish Court at last prevailed upon the Ottomans to break the truce, and in 1712 Peter was suddenly surrounded on the banks of the Pruth, and his army apparently doomed to destruction. While, however, he believed everything lost, his mistress, Catharine, afterwards his wife, by offering a large bribe to the Grand Vizier, saved the Czar's honour and his army. After the conclusion of peace, Peter, accompanied by Catharine, made a second tour of Europe. By his first marriage he had a son, Alexis, who, engaging in 1717 in a conspiracy against his father, was condemned to death, and died in prison under very suspicious circumstances. At last, afflicted with a dangerous illness, Peter appointed the Empress Catharine his successor, and caused her to be publicly crowned shortly before his death, which occurred on the 8th of February, 1725.

PETER THE GREAT

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



1672	DATE OF BIRTH.		
1682	WITH BROTHER BECAME CZAR OF MUSCOVY . . .	AGE	10
1689	BECAME SOLE SOVEREIGN	„	17
1692	FOUNDED RUSSIAN NAVY	„	20
1696	BESIEGED AND TOOK AZOF	„	24
1697-8	VISITED HOLLAND AND ENGLAND	„	25-26
1698	DEFEATED CONSPIRACY OF “STRELITZES” . . .	„	26
1699	REFORMED THE CALENDAR	„	27
1700	DEFEATED BY CHARLES XII. OF SWEDEN . . .	„	28
1703	FOUNDED ST. PETERSBURG	„	31
1704	TOTALLY DEFEATED CHARLES XII. AT PULTAWA .	„	32
1711	MARRIED CATHERINE; UNSUCCESSFUL WAR WITH TURKEY	„	39
1715	ACQUIRED ESTHONIA, LIVONIA AND FINLAND. .	„	43
1716-7	VISITED GERMANY, HOLLAND AND FRANCE . .	„	44-45
1721	ASSUMED TITLE OF EMPEROR	„	49
1725	FOUNDED ACADEMY OF SCIENCES	„	53
1725	DIED	„	53



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FREDERICK THE GREAT

FREDERICK THE GREAT

1712-1786

THE PRUSSIAN MONARCHY

THE grandfather of Frederick the Great fought in the coalition against Louis XIV., and was permitted by the Treaty of Utrecht to crown himself King of Prussia. Prince Eugène, who saw in this the nucleus of a new antagonistic power in Germany, declared that the Imperial ministers who consented to it deserved to be hanged.

The character of this man as well as that of his consort is revealed in the dying words of the Queen herself: "Do not weep for me. I go now to satisfy myself as to those things which Leibnitz could never explain to me, Space, Infinity, Existence, Non-existence; and I leave to the King the ceremonials of my funeral, in which he will find a new opportunity for the display of his magnificence."

Under a new sovereign the court assumed a new aspect. Frederick William I., father of Frederick, had far truer and more solid ideas of greatness. The frivolities and expenses of the court disappeared, and the rule of economy succeeded that of extravagance. The campaigns of the Low Countries had made the new King acquainted with the organisation of his army, and he determined that, instead of wasting her strength for the rights

of others, Prussia should become an independent power capable of maintaining her own. His new regulations for the revenues, for the economy of his court, and for the discouragement of luxury, had all the same object, to increase the wealth of the nation and provide for the support of his army. The passion for soldiers became even an eccentricity in him. His agents in foreign countries would kidnap men of size, and no present from other sovereigns was so acceptable as that of a few recruits six feet high for the Potsdam body-guard.

Ministers as well as private individuals bowed before the stern discipline which the love of military organisation caused him to adopt, and Prussia was converted, as Frederick the Great has said, from being the Athens into the Sparta of the north. Frederick William, in fact, was an autocrat. His treatment even of his own children was severe. But at his death he left to his successor a prosperous and contented kingdom, flourishing in its revenue and supporting an army of nearly 80,000 men, which, from its discipline and organisation, was to be the terror and admiration of Europe.

Frederick the Great was born at Berlin. Educated by French refugees, he early showed a lively admiration for the literature, ideas, and even the fashions of that nation, and an utter disinclination to become a soldier, which was the intention of his father, who, in great disgust, gave him the sobriquet of the "little dandy." The study of the French language, which he always used in writing, the study of history and philosophy, the practice of the *beaux arts* and the composition of writings, of which some are remarkable, filled up the years of his youth and enabled him to forget the harsh treatment of his father, whose spirit was exclusively military, and who was the enemy of all intellectual culture. When eighteen years old he prepared to fly the country to escape the ill-treatment of his father, but the attempt was frustrated, and he was obliged to leave court and reside at Custrin, and to familiarise himself with the affairs of war and administration.

In 1732 he married, at his father's express command and against his inclinations, a princess of the house of Brunswick, and was despatched to serve in the army which joined Prince Eugène. Frederick returned from the campaign less enthusiastic than ever for the career of arms, and retired to the Château of Rheinsberg, where he lived till 1740 surrounded by

savants and men of letters, occupied with science and a correspondence with the most celebrated men of the day. As a vivid exposition of his sentiments at this time, there remains his refutation of "the Prince" of Machiavelli, in which he raises his voice energetically against the despotic principles of the Florentine publicist, and traces with philosophic severity the true duties of a sovereign. It is said that on his becoming King he tried to arrest the publication of this book. The retreat of Rheinsberg was called the Sojourn of the Muses, and it was really a school of arts and politeness. Frederick received there the celebrated men of all countries. He was engaged in correspondence with Maupertuis, Algarotti, and above all, with Voltaire.

But all this was about to be changed. In the same year of the publishing the "Anti-Machiavel" (1740), Frederick's father died and left him master of the kingdom. It was in a flourishing condition, and it possessed a fine army, which had never been beaten. But notwithstanding the growing power of Prussia, it had not yet, according to Frederick's own expression, a definite national character, it was more like an electorate than a kingdom. From the moment of his ascending the throne he showed a grand ambition to elevate the kingdom to the first rank among nations. He directed his attention to two principal objects—the finances and the army; increased the number of the troops, and profited by the embarrassments of Maria Theresa to make a treaty with France and gain Silesia, which he nearly lost, and again regained within the next three years, defeating the Austrians at the battle of Mollwitz.

Peace now ensued for ten years, and numerous reforms gave an extraordinary development to the prosperity of Prussia. Marshes were drained, manufactures established in all parts, sterile lands put under culture, cities founded, new industries introduced. Energetic efforts to banish the remains of feudalism were made, banks of credit were created, and a new code of laws promulgated, with liberty of conscience for all: such were some of the principal things accomplished by Frederick, who, by a singular contradiction, practised the principle of absolute government, while in theory he approved of what are to-day called constitutional governments. At the same time he re-organised the Academy at Berlin, established by Leibnitz, made Maupertuis president, and attracted many foreign savants to his court, the most famous of whom was Voltaire, by this act rendering the greatest service to the civilisation of Prussia.

In 1756 the Seven Years' War broke out, and Prussia saw assembled against her France, Austria, Saxony, and Russia. From the consequences of such an alliance, the activity, courage, and genius of Frederick saved the nation. He had no allies except a few troops sent from England, and more than once was in danger of being totally crushed. In the seventeen battles in which he was engaged, defeat was often his portion, but he also made some dazzling victories, as at Rosbach and Leuthen. The Battle at Rosbach took place on a bitter cold day in November. Frederick had 20,000 men. Coming against him were 50,000 French and Austrian soldiers. Addressing his troops that day, Frederick said: "Comrades, you know that there have been no watchings, fatigues, sufferings or dangers that I have not shared with you up to this moment. You see me now ready to die with you and for you. I ask, comrades, that you return zeal for zeal, and love for love. Counting from this day you shall draw double pay. Forward!" The onset was superhuman, bringing swift destruction to the foes. The artillery crushed them; the infantry bayoneted, shot, and broke them; the cavalry rode over and sabred them; no time was given them to deploy, form, or retreat. The three arms were combined to work under the most favourable circumstances, physical, moral, and personal. In an hour and a half a victory was gained with a Prussian loss of only 300 men.

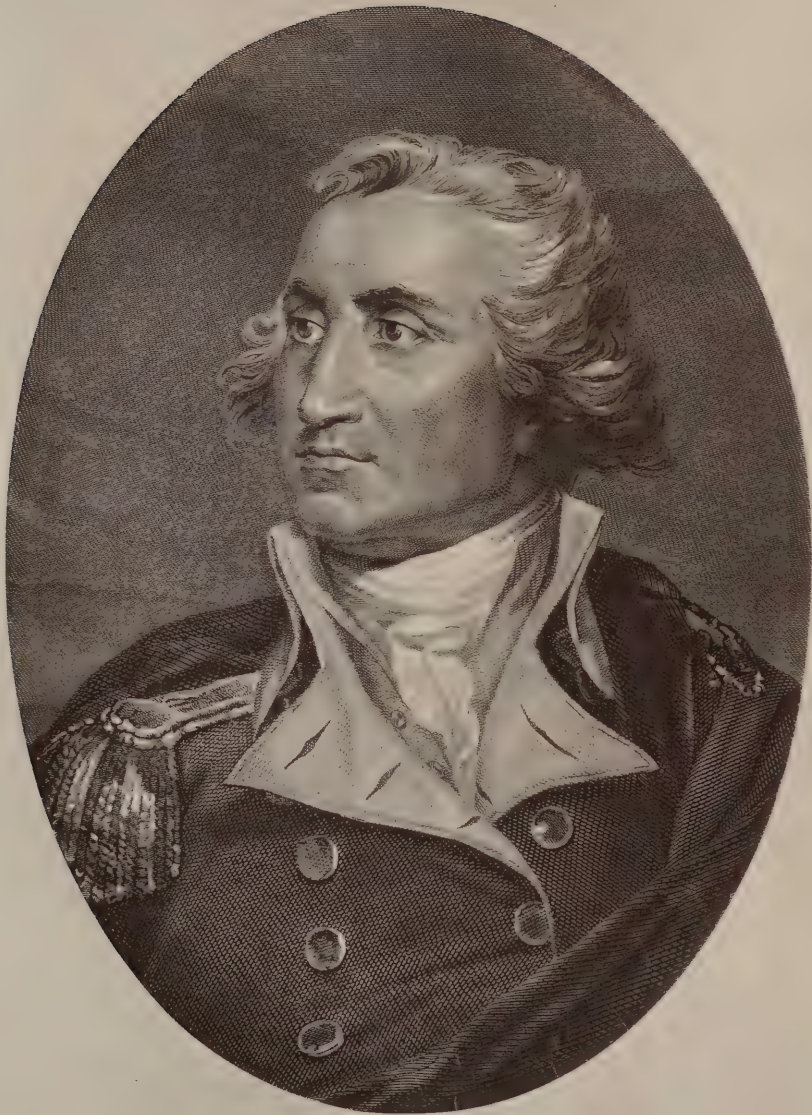
In 1763 a sudden change of sovereigns in Russia broke the coalition of nations, and Frederick came out of the conflict with the reputation of one of the greatest commanders of his time. Peace was signed and the position of affairs remained unchanged, except that Prussia was stripped of men and money. To heal the wounds, Frederick devoted all his energies. He re-established the towns and cities, gave an energetic impulse to agriculture, commerce and industry, and undertook a series of measures of which the general result was to establish again as quickly as possible the material prosperity of the country.

In 1783 a new cause for alarm arose, by the plan of the Emperor of Austria to obtain Bavaria. Frederick was in his 75th year, but as strong in policy as ever, and he formed at this time the famous confederation of German princes known as the "Fürstenbund," which completely frustrated the attempt of the Emperor, and was the last act in Frederick's life, as in August 1784 he died at San Souci, and left his kingdom, nearly doubled in size, to his nephew Frederick William.

FREDERICK THE GREAT

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE

[illegible]



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WASHINGTON

WASHINGTON

1732-1799

AMERICAN REVOLUTION

WASHINGTON was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, Feb. 22, 1732. Peter the Great had died seven years before. The lives of Catherine II., Maria Theresa, Frederick II., Joseph II., and Louis XVI. cover pretty nearly the same period as Washington's. The same may be said of the lives of Burke, Chatham, Warren Hastings, Clive, Robespierre, and Wesley. The pedigree of the Washington family is still somewhat obscure. They probably emigrated from the north of England. The father of George was a well-to-do man, and at his death, in 1743, left to his family a good estate and other property. George started in life very poorly furnished with school learning; had no Latin, no Greek, no modern language but his mother-tongue, and in that little more than reading, writing, and arithmetic. He made some acquaintance with geometry, and its practical application in surveying. In boyhood he was fond of athletic sports, and of mimic military exercises. Among his schoolfellows his character won respect, and appeal was made to him on matters in dispute. After leaving school (1748) he followed up the study of geometry and the practice of surveying, and after a short engagement under Lord Fairfax

was appointed public surveyor. In 1751 he was appointed adjutant-general to one of the military districts of Virginia. The death of his elder brother in 1752 threw upon him large family responsibilities; and in the next year he was chosen to execute a difficult mission to the French commander, whose post was some five or six hundred miles distant. The memorable struggle was beginning between French and English for the possession of the North American continent. In 1754 Washington was second in command in the campaign against the French. In the following year, war having been declared, he served as a volunteer aide under General Bradlock, and showed a reckless bravery at the battle on the Monongahela. In 1758, after having succeeded in getting his militia organised as the royal forces were, he resigned his commission because there seemed to be no hope of promotion for him in the royal army.

Washington now married (January, 1759), and during the next fifteen years occupied himself chiefly with the management of his estates and other private affairs. For some years, however, he was a member of the House of Representatives, and one of the most punctual and business-like. In the disputes with the mother-country about taxation, while resolutely controverting the right to tax, he earnestly deprecated a rupture, until he saw that it could only be avoided by the sacrifice of principle. The first general Congress met in 1774, and Washington was one of its members; and in June, 1775, he was named commander-in-chief. Formidable difficulties confronted him. He had had no experience in handling large bodies of men; he had no material of war, nor means of getting it, and there was no strong Government to support him. Hence progress was slow, and reverses were frequent. But through all which his patience, his courage, his good sense and sagacity, and his inflexible resolution carried him to ultimate success. Boston was evacuated by the English troops in March, 1776; on July 4 the same year was made the Declaration of Independence. The battles of Long Island, Trenton, Princeton, Brandywine, Germantown, &c., followed; the French came to the aid of the Americans in 1778, and Philadelphia was evacuated. The struggle was virtually closed by the fall of Yorktown and the capture of the English army under Lord Cornwallis, in October, 1781. Success created new dangers and difficulties, against which the commander-in-chief had strenuously to contend. At length New York was evacuated, Nov. 25,

1783, and on the 4th of December Washington spoke his grave farewell to his officers. Two days before Christmas he resigned his commission and retired to his estate, Mount Vernon. In 1787 he was a member of the Convention which prepared the Constitution, and in 1789 entered upon office as first President of the United States. There is something startling in the juxtaposition, in the same year, 1789, of two such memorable facts as these—the Constitution of the United States came into operation, and the States-General met at Paris ; both new beginnings, openings of courses leading to goals still unknown. As President, Washington had troubles enough with his cabinet, which was sharply divided into Federalists and anti-Federalists, the two parties headed respectively by Hamilton and Jefferson. Foreign relations, too, were uneasy and perplexing. Washington would fain check the growth of bitter party spirit, and avert foreign war. He would willingly have retired at the close of his term, but he could not be spared, and was unanimously re-elected. At length, having done a good life's work, he determined in 1796 to cease from his labours, and issued (September) his memorable farewell to his country. He witnessed the installation of his successor in the Presidency, and then retired to his home. In little more than two years the final summons came. Washington died on the 14th of December, 1799.

JEFFERSON'S ESTIMATE OF WASHINGTON.—“ His mind was great and powerful, without being of the very first order ; his penetration strong, though not so acute as that of a Newton, Bacon or Locke ; and as far as he saw, no judgment was ever sounder. It was slow in operation, being little aided by invention or imagination, but sure in conclusion. Hence the common remark of his officers, of the advantage he derived from councils of war, where, hearing all suggestions, he selected whatever was best ; and certainly no general ever planned his battles more judiciously. But if deranged during the course of the action, if any member of his plan was dislocated by sudden circumstances, he was slow in a readjustment. The consequence was, that he often failed in the field and rarely against an enemy in station, as at Boston and York. He was incapable of fear, meeting personal danger with the calmest unconcern. Perhaps the strongest feature in his character was prudence, never acting until every circumstance, every consideration was maturely weighed, refraining if he saw a doubt, but when once decided, going through with his purpose,

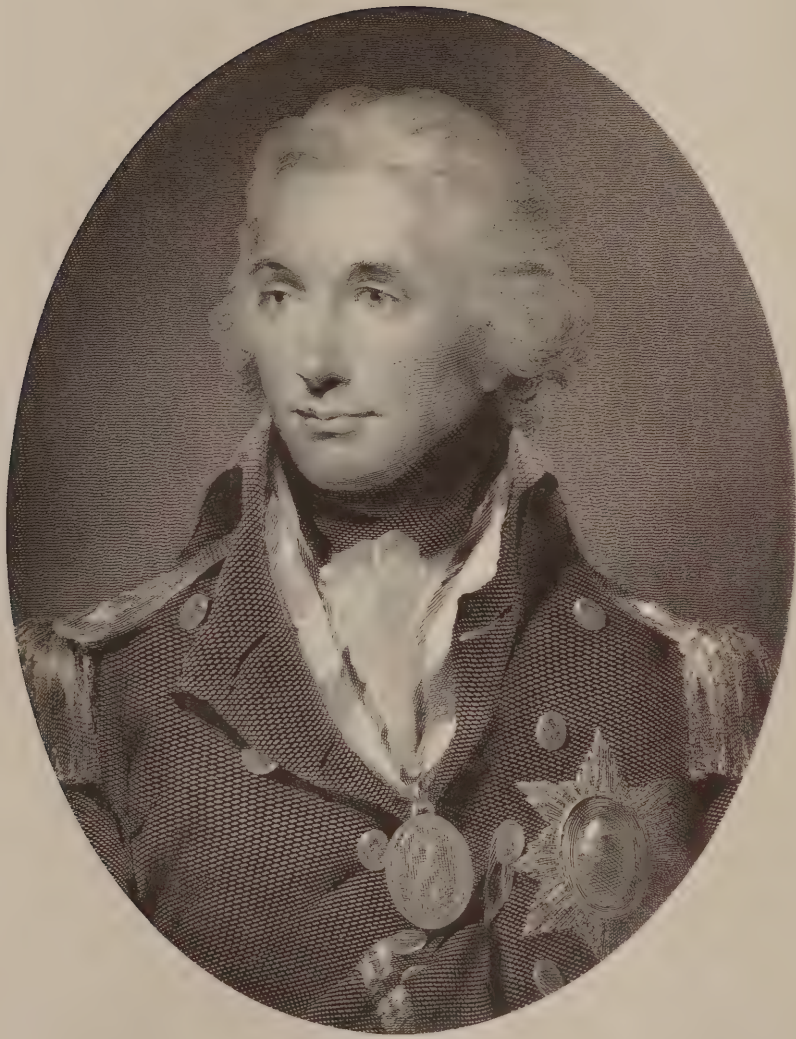
whatever obstacles opposed. His integrity was most pure, his justice the most inflexible, no motives of interest or consanguinity, of friendship or hatred, being able to bias his decision. He was, in every sense of the word, a wise, a good, and a great man. His temper was naturally irritable and high-toned; but reflection and resolution had obtained a firm and habitual ascendancy over it. If ever, however, it broke forth, he was most tremendous in his wrath. In his expenses he was honourable, but exact; liberal in contributions to whatever promised utility, but frowning and unyielding in all visionary projects, and all unworthy calls on his charity. His heart was not warm in its affections; but he exactly calculated every man's value, and gave him a solid esteem proportionate to it. His person was fine, his stature exactly what one could wish, his deportment easy, erect and noble, the best horseman of his age, and the most graceful figure that could be seen on horseback. Although in the circle of his friends, where he might be unreserved with safety, he took a free share in conversation, his colloquial talents were not above mediocrity, possessing neither copiousness of ideas nor fluency of words. In public when called upon for a sudden opinion, he was unready, short and embarrassed. Yet he wrote readily, rather diffusely, in an easy and correct style. This he acquired by conversation with the world, for his education was merely reading, writing, and common arithmetic, to which he added surveying at a later day. His time was employed in action chiefly, reading little, and that only in agriculture and English history. His correspondence became necessarily extensive, and with journalising his agricultural proceedings occupied most of his leisure within doors. On the whole, his character was in its mass perfect, in nothing bad, in a few points indifferent, and it may truly be said that never did nature and fortune combine more perfectly to make a man great, and to place him in the same constellation with whatever worthies have merited from man an everlasting remembrance. For his was the singular destiny and merit of leading the armies of his country successfully through an arduous war, for the establishment of its independence; of conducting its councils through the birth of a government, new in its forms and principles, until it had settled down into a quiet and orderly train; and of scrupulously obeying the laws through the whole of his career, civil and military, of which the history of the world furnishes no other example."

WASHINGTON

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



1732	BORN IN WESTMORELAND, VIRGINIA.		
1752	ADJUTANT-GENERAL IN VIRGINIA	AGE	20
1754	SECOND IN COMMAND AGAINST THE FRENCH . .	„	22
1755	DISTINGUISHED HIMSELF AT MONONGAHELA . .	„	23
1758	RESIGNED MILITARY COMMAND	„	26
1759	MARRIED	„	27
1774	DELEGATE TO PHILADELPHIA CONGRESS . .	„	42
1775	APPOINTED COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF OF ARMY . .	„	43
1776	BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL	„	44
1777	DEFEATED AT GERMANTOWN	„	45
1781	RECEIVED CAPITULATION OF CORNWALLIS AT YORKTOWN	„	49
1783	RESIGNED COMMAND OF THE ARMY	„	51
1789	ELECTED FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES	„	57
1793	RE-ELECTED	„	61
1796	REFUSED A THIRD ELECTION	„	64
1797	RETIRED FROM PUBLIC AFFAIRS	„	65
1799	DIED AT MOUNT VERNON	„	67



Boston Public Library.

NELSON

NELSON

1758-1805

BRITISH ADMIRAL

HORATIO NELSON, the most celebrated of British naval heroes, was born in the parsonage house of Burnham Thorpe, a village in the county of Norfolk, of which his father was rector. He was educated first at Norwich, and next at North Walsham, but in his twelfth year he became a midshipman under his uncle, Captain Suckling, of the "Raisonnable." Soon after this he sailed to the Antilles in a vessel belonging to the mercantile marine. On his return he joined the "Triumph," then stationed as a guard ship in the Thames, and he was next appointed to the "Carcass," one of the vessels sent on an expedition to the North Pole, under the orders of Captain Phipps. Then he went to the East Indies in the "Sea-Horse," with the squadron commanded by Sir Edward Hughes. When he had been about eighteen months in India, he felt the effects of the climate. Attacked by a disease which baffled all power of medicine, he was reduced almost to a skeleton; the use of his limbs was for some time entirely lost, and the only hope that remained was from a voyage home. Accordingly he was brought home by Captain Pigot in the "Dolphin," and had it not been for the attentive kindness of that officer on the way, Nelson would

never have lived to reach his native shores. Speaking of his disappointment at this period, he said:—"I felt impressed with a feeling that I should never rise in my profession. My mind was staggered with a view of the difficulties I had to surmount, and the little interest I possessed. I could discover no means of reaching the object of my ambition. After a long and gloomy reverie, in which I almost wished myself overboard, a sudden glow of patriotism was kindled within me, and presented my King and country as my patron. Well then, I exclaimed, I will be a hero! and, confiding in Providence, I will brave every danger!" Long afterwards Nelson loved to speak of the feeling of that moment; and from that time, he often said, a radiant orb was suspended in his mind's eye, which urged him onward to renown.

In 1777 he obtained the rank of lieutenant, and in 1779 that of post-captain, when he was appointed to the command of the "*Hinchinbrook*," in which ship he sailed to the West Indies, where he distinguished himself at the siege of Fort San Juan, and took the island of St. Bartholomew. But disease made fearful ravages among the men. Eighteen hundred were sent to different posts upon this wretched expedition, of whom not more than three hundred and eighty ever returned. Nelson himself was so ill that he was compelled to go back to England; but he speedily recovered, and after an interval of about four months he was appointed to the "*Albemarle*," which was sent to the Baltic. During this voyage he gained a considerable knowledge of the Danish coast and its soundings, greatly to the advantage of his country in after times. The "*Albemarle*" was then sent on a cruise to Canada.

After the peace of 1783, Nelson passed several years in command of the "*Boreas*" frigate, stationed for the protection of trade at the Leeward Islands, and while there he married Mrs. Nisbet, a young widow. On the breaking out of the French revolutionary war he was appointed to the "*Agamemnon*," and was placed under the orders of Lord Hood in the Mediterranean, where he displayed great bravery on many occasions, particularly at Toulon and the siege of Calvi, where he lost an eye. His name was not even mentioned, however, in the "*London Gazette*," and he keenly felt the neglect. "They have not done me justice," he exclaimed; "but never mind, I'll have a gazette of my own." In the same prophetic strain he wrote, not long afterwards, to his wife:—"Had all my actions

been gazetted, not one fortnight would have passed, during the whole war, without a letter from me. One day or other I will have a long gazette to myself. I feel that such an opportunity will be given me. I cannot, if I am in the field of glory, be kept out of sight; wherever there is anything to be done, there Providence is sure to direct my steps."

These anticipations were soon to be fulfilled. He hoisted his broad pennant as commodore on board the "*Minerve*," and fell in with the Spanish fleet, from which he escaped, and conveyed the intelligence to Admiral Jervis, off Cape St. Vincent, on the 13th of February, 1797. The same evening the enemy appeared, and Nelson, shifting his flag to the "*Captain*," had a principal part in the glory of that day, for which he received the companionship of the Order of the Bath. He had been previously created a rear-admiral.

Nelson commanded the inner squadron at the blockade of Cadiz, and soon afterwards he was detached against Santa Cruz, in Teneriffe. This enterprise, however, failed, after a fierce contest, in which Nelson received a shot in the right elbow that rendered amputation necessary. Soon afterwards he was despatched to the Mediterranean to observe the vast armament then preparing at Toulon. In a fog he missed the French fleet, which had sailed for Egypt, but he afterwards fell in with it in the Bay of Aboukir. "Before this time to-morrow," said he to his officers, "I shall have gained a peerage or Westminster Abbey!" A sanguinary engagement ensued, in which the British were completely victorious. For this achievement Nelson was made Baron of the Nile, rewarded with a pension, and covered with honours by different sovereigns. He next rendered an important service in the restoration of the King of Naples, on which occasion, however, he tarnished his reputation by trying and executing the Neapolitan admiral Caraccioli. In 1800 he landed in England, where he soon after separated from his wife, through an unfortunate attachment to the wife of Sir William Hamilton. The year following he added to his renown as a naval hero by the destruction of the Danish ships and batteries at Copenhagen, for which he was created a Viscount. His next enterprise was an unsuccessful attempt on the flotilla in the harbour of Boulogne.

On the renewal of hostilities with France, Lord Nelson was appointed to command the fleet in the Mediterranean, where for nearly two years he was employed in the blockade of Toulon. At length the French fleet

escaped out of port, March 30, 1805, and, being joined by the Spanish squadron, proceeded to the West Indies, whither Nelson followed them with the utmost expedition; but, after a most extraordinary pursuit, the flying enemy returned to Europe and got safe into Cadiz. The English admiral, as soon as he had recruited himself, sailed for Cadiz, off which harbour he arrived on September 29, and on the 21st of the following month was fought the battle of Trafalgar, previous to which Nelson signalled his last order, "England expects every man to do his duty." His own example went with this injunction; but unfortunately, by exposing himself too conspicuously, and neglecting to take off the insignia of his rank, he became an object to the marksmen placed in the tops of the ship with which he was engaged. In the heat of the battle a musket ball struck him on the left shoulder, and passing through the spine, lodged in the muscles of the back. He was carried below, and the surgeon declared the wound to be mortal. He lived just long enough to be made acquainted with the number of ships that had been captured, and his last words were, "Thank God, I have done my duty." His body was brought to England, and buried in St. Paul's Cathedral.

N E L S O N

CHRONOLOGY OF HIS LIFE



1758	BORN AT BURNHAM THORPE.		
1771	ENTERED NAVY	AGE	13
1773-4	SAILED WITH CAPT. PHIPPS TO NORTH POLE . .	„	15-16
1776	MADE LIEUTENANT „ . .	„	18
1779	POST-CAPTAIN	„	21
1780	DISTINGUISHED HIMSELF IN THE WEST INDIES .	„	22
1781	SENT TO NORTH SEA	„	23
1782	„ QUEBEC	„	24
1787	SERVED AT LEEWARD ISLANDS	„	29
1793	SENT TO THE MEDITERRANEAN UNDER LORD HOOD	„	35
1794	LOST AN EYE AT CALVI, CORSICA	„	36
1794	BLOCKADED LEGHORN	„	37
1796	LOST RIGHT ARM AT SANTA CRUZ	„	38
1797	MADE REAR-ADMIRAL	„	39
1798	DEFEATED FRENCH FLEET AT ABOUKIR . . .	„	40
1799	OCCUPIED LEGHORN	„	41
1801	VICE-ADMIRAL; GAINED BATTLE OF COPENHAGEN .	„	43
1803	COMMANDED IN THE MEDITERRANEAN . . .	„	45
1805	DEFEATED FRENCH AND SPANISH AT TRAFALGAR; KILLED	„	47



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NAPOLEON

NAPOLEON I.

1769-1821

THE FRENCH REVOLUTION

THE founder of the French Empire is the greatest personage of recent times, or at all events, the individual who occupies the most conspicuous place in modern history. During a quarter of a century, in a period of revolutions and of unexampled vicissitudes, his name was associated with all public events, on the course of which he exercised an immense influence. It thus happens that the memoirs of this illustrious man are so complicated with general history, as to render them an epitome of the principal events of the times in which he flourished. This observation will be found to apply with peculiar force to the life and achievements of Napoleon I., whose biography, fully narrated, must lose its individuality and become, to a certain extent, the annals not merely of the country which was the theatre of his own exploits, but of all the States of Europe and of all the leading characters concerned in their government and administration. We have here only space to indicate some of the more remarkable incidents of his marvellous career.

Napoleon Bonaparte was born at Ajaccio in Corsica on the 15th of August, 1769, two months after the conquest of the island by the French.

He was the son of Charles Bonaparte, a noble but not wealthy Corsican, by his wife Letizia Ramolino. Through the influence of the Count de Marbeuf, military governor of Corsica, he entered in 1779 the school of Brienne, from which he passed, in 1784, to the military school at Paris. In 1785 he was appointed sub-lieutenant of a regiment of artillery. Happening to be in Corsica in 1792, he was promoted to the provisional command of a battalion of the National Guard. Proscribed by Paoli, who was then master of the island, and an ally of the English, he resided for a considerable time with his mother and sisters, first at Nice and then at Marseilles, in very straitened circumstances. He was advanced to the rank of captain in 1793, and soon afterwards he received orders to suppress the federalists of Marseilles, an undertaking which he accomplished with complete success. Nominated in the same year adjutant at the siege of Toulon; then in the possession of the English and Spaniards, he caused its surrender by capturing the fort of l'Eguillette, and was rewarded with the rank of brigadier-general of artillery. Ordered in 1794 to command the artillery of the "army of Italy," he had already achieved brilliant successes when he was suspended from his functions as a suspected person, after the 9th Thermidor, in consequence of his connection with the terrorists, Robespierre the younger and Ricord. Having been placed under arrest for a short time he was recalled to Paris, and finally his name was struck off the active list.

The insurrection at Paris against the Convention, on October 5th, 1795, changed the situation, and Napoleon being chosen by Barras to take the second command, secured the victory to the Convention in less than an hour of actual fighting. He obtained in recompense the grade of general of division, with the chief command of the army of the interior. In the following year he married Josephine, widow of the Viscount de Beauharnais. Within a week after his marriage he left France in order to assume the chief command of the "army of Italy," then vanquished, disorganised, and bankrupt (March 1796). In the course of a year he completely routed the Piedmontese army, and five Austrian armies, each numerically stronger than his own. Austria sued for peace, and signed the famous treaty of Campo Formio, which was by no means satisfactory to the Directory, as the victorious general had consulted his personal glory rather than the interests of the Republic.

In 1798 he embarked for Egypt, took Malta and Alexandria, gained

the battle of the Pyramids, and made (1799) an expedition into Syria, which was signalled by the taking of Jaffa, of Sour, the victories of Nazareth and of Mount Tabor, and the raising of the siege of Acre. Returning to Egypt, he beat the Turks at Aboukir, and then embarked for France. On the 9th November, 1799, he brought about what is termed the Revolution of the 18th Brumaire, abolished the Directory, and caused himself to be appointed First Consul.

The following year (1800) he placed himself at the head of the army of reserve which he had organised secretly at Dijon, crossed the Alps, gained the victories of Montebello and of Marengo, returned to Paris and signed in succession (1801) peace with Austria, Naples, Portugal, and Russia, a secret treaty with Spain, a concordat with Pope Pius VII., and finally (1802) the treaty of Amiens with England. In the latter year a *senatus-consultum* conferred on him the title of First Consul for life. The treaty of Paris with the United States, the resumption of hostilities with England, the evacuation of St. Domingo (1803), and the execution of the Duke d'Enghien (1804), were the last acts of the Consulate, and an organic *senatus-consultum* (May 18) conferred on Bonaparte the title of Emperor, under the name of Napoleon I. The new sovereign was consecrated at Paris by the Pope (December 2), and crowned at Milan as King of Italy in the following year (1805).

A third continental coalition was soon formed against him, but the Emperor having raised the camp of Boulogne rapidly began a celebrated campaign. The capitulation of the Austrian army at Ulm, the occupation of Vienna, and, lastly, the victory of Austerlitz over the Austrians and the Russians, compelled Austria to sign the treaty of Presburg. But in the meantime the French fleet, united to that of Spain, had been destroyed by Nelson at Trafalgar. The following year (1806) Napoleon placed his brother Louis on the throne of Holland. Prussia and Russia now declared war against the Emperor, whose victories of Jena and Auerstadt were followed by the conquest of Prussia, and the defeat of the Russians at Eylau and at Friedland. The treaties of Tilsit with those two Powers terminated the war. Napoleon next turned his attention to Portugal and Spain; Lisbon was occupied by a French army, and Joseph Bonaparte, proclaimed King of Spain, made his entry into Madrid. Then commenced that insurrection which was one of the chief causes of the fall of the Empire. A fresh war

with Austria (1809), which Power, defeated at Wagram, signed the treaty of Vienna; the divorce of Napoleon and his marriage with the Archduchess Marie Louise; the reunion of Holland with the Empire; the evacuation of Portugal; the renewal of hostilities with Russia; the disastrous retreat from Moscow; the sixth continental coalition; the victories of Lutzen and Dresden; the defeat of Leipzig; the invasion of France, and the admirable campaign of 1814 are the principal events of the last five years of the Empire. On the 31st of March, 1814, the allies entered Paris, and the senate decreed that the Imperial throne was vacant. Bonaparte was banished to the Isle of Elba, the sovereignty of which was granted to him in perpetuity. Making his escape in February 1815, he landed in France, made his way to Paris, and having mustered a sufficient force, marched (July 12) to the frontiers, with the design of cutting off the English under Wellington and the Prussians, commanded by Blucher, in the vicinity of Brussels. On the 15th hostilities commenced near Charleroi, when the Prussians were repulsed, and Napoleon advanced to Fleurus. The next day were fought the battles of Ligny and Quatre-Bras, when the Prussians were compelled to fall back to Mont St. Guibert and the British to Waterloo. On the 18th the great contest was fought at Waterloo, where the French were completely defeated. Napoleon was exiled to St. Helena, where he died on May 5, 1821.

It is upon a military foundation that Napoleon's fame must rest; here he forms the terminal link of a long chain; Alexander, Hannibal, Cæsar, Charlemagne, Ghenkis Khan, Tamerlane, Gustavus Adolphus, Turenne, Frederick II., Napoleon—the ten greatest warriors of the world. Whenever and wherever war exists, there his name will be held in honour. As a systematic slayer of men he has never been equalled.



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WELLINGTON

WELLINGTON

1769-1852

BRITISH COMMANDER

ARTHUR WELLESLEY, first Duke of Wellington, was descended from a family of English origin, which for several centuries had been settled in Ireland. He was born in 1769; received the elements of education at Eton, and was afterwards sent to the Military College at Angers, in France, where he studied several years under Pignerol, the great engineer.

In 1787 he was appointed to an ensigncy in the 73rd Regiment of foot, and ten months later became a lieutenant. In 1791 he attained the rank of captain, and in 1793 was elected lieutenant-colonel in the 33rd Regiment. His career in the field commenced in Holland in 1794; his next service was in India (1796), where his brother was governor-general. In 1799 Seringapatam, capital of Mysore, fell before the allied British and native army, and Colonel Wellesley was appointed governor of the territory, and exercised the power conferred on him in such a way as to obtain the gratitude of the natives, and to display his talents for organisation and command.

In 1803 he was raised to the rank of major-general, and soon after was appointed to the command in the Mahratta wars. With only 7500 troops he succeeded in routing a force of 50,000 natives, and broke the power of the chiefs. Shortly after the close of the Mahratta war, General Wellesley

quitted India, and, after an absence of nine years, landed once more in England (1805). His appointment to the coloneley of the 33rd Regiment, marriage, and election as M.P. for Rye, all took place in the spring of 1806. In 1807 he was appointed Secretary for Ireland, under the Duke of Richmond.

At this juncture Napoleon, who had crushed Austria and Prussia and formed an alliance with Russia, proceeded to put into execution his design upon Portugal and Spain. He sent Junot to take possession of Lisbon, and poured his troops into Spain. The nations rose as one man, and sent to England to solicit assistance. A force of 10,000 men was then waiting at Cork to be dispatched on some expedition or other, and the ministry resolved to send these troops and General Wellesley to Portugal, without any definite plan either to their destination or the service they were to perform. After landing, and obtaining some slight advantages, the capitulation of Cintra followed, and later Napoleon overthrew the Spanish armies, and the retreat of Sir John Moore to Corunna followed. General Wellesley, who had returned to England through an inability to act with his superiors, was reappointed to the chief command of a new expedition. In 1809 he landed at Lisbon, compelled Soult to abandon Oporto, and defeated the French at Talavera. But the position of the British army was exceeding critical, and he was forced to fall back on Merida and Lisbon by a series of prompt and rapid marches.

Napoleon, enraged at the result of the Battle of Talavera, resolved to pour an overwhelming mass of troops into Spain, and directed that nine powerful corps, numbering 280,000 men, should be sent to the field. Wellington had only 55,000 disposable troops, including 30,000 Portuguese. With far-seeing eye he had already divined the proper mode of meeting the storm, and ordered the erection of the famed lines of Torres Vedras, which formed an impregnable fastness and a secure retreat, as well as a safe base of operations when he should resume the offensive. After a delay of some weeks the French advanced under Massena. Wellington retired to his inaccessible stronghold, after defeating a portion of the enemy at Busaco. After a month Massena abandoned his position in despair, and made a retreat to Santarem. Wellington seized the opportunity to invest the fortress of Almeida, one of the keys of Portugal, and repulsed the French at Fuentes d'Onoro, in March 1811.

In 1812 he accomplished a brilliant campaign in Spain. In June, with 40,000 men, he advanced against the forces of Marmont, who, near

Salamanca, attempted to cut off the march of the British from Ciudad Rodrigo. At first Marmont gained some advantages of position, but in his eagerness to prevent the retreat of the enemy, over-extended his line and allowed a gap to intervene, which the eagle glance of the British general detecting, he ordered an attack at that point, and, as he himself said : "In forty minutes defeated an army of 40,000 men." In August 1812 he made a triumphant entry into Madrid, and undertook the siege of Burgos, but was unsuccessful, and obliged to retreat to Portugal. In 1813 he received reinforcements, crossed the Tormes, Douro, Esla and Ebro, and entered Spain. Driving everything before him, he overtook the retreating French army on the plain of Vittoria, and inflicted on them a most decisive defeat. This battle freed the peninsula from the French invaders, and they were driven to the recesses of the Pyrenees.

Soult, as "lieutenant of the Emperor," once more tried his strength against his invincible antagonist, and a succession of combats followed, called the "Battles of the Pyrenees," in which the French lost 13,000 men, and were at last driven back into their own country. In March 1814 Wellington had succeeded in occupying Toulouse, when Napoleon's abdication ended the great peninsular war. In June 1814 Wellington broke up his army, and returned to England; was made Marquis of Douro and Duke of Wellington, received £400,000, and entered the House of Lords. The highest honours were also showered upon him by the continental allies, and he was made field-marshal in each of the principal armies of Europe, a Portuguese magnate, and a Spanish grandee.

In January 1815 he represented England at the Vienna Congress, and united with Austria and France in resisting the rapacious demands of Russia and Prussia. The news of Napoleon's escape from Elba and unopposed restoration to the imperial throne, came like a thunder-peal on the wrangling Congress. Suspending at once their contentions, they signed a new treaty of alliance, pledged themselves to support Louis XVIII., and proceeded to adopt measures to put down their terrible antagonist. Wellington assumed the command of the English and Dutch forces stationed in the Netherlands, and meanwhile the Prussian and English contingents took up a position in front of the Belgian capital.

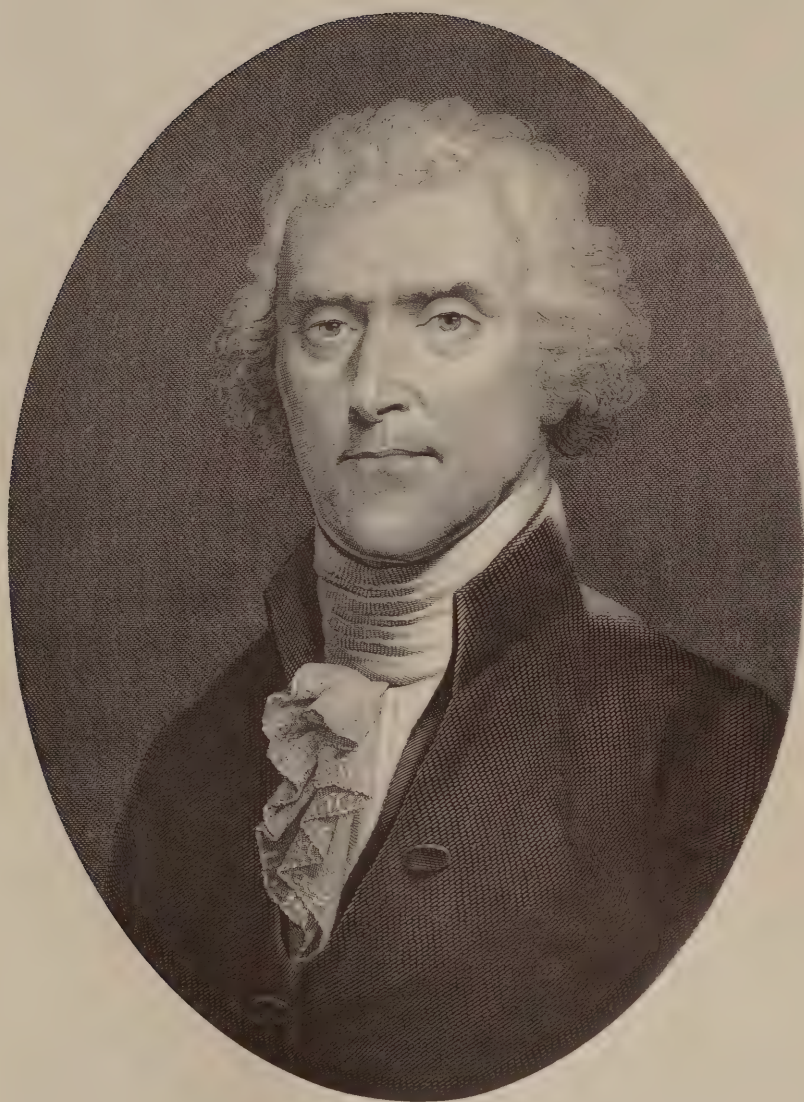
In June Napoleon crossed the frontier with his army, drove in the Russian outposts, and carried Charleroi and Ligny. Wellington retired to the position he had previously marked out at Waterloo, where he resolved to await the attack of the French. The struggle which took place on the

18th of June was obstinate and sanguinary; defeat was changed into unparalleled and irretrievable disaster; and Napoleon's sun set for ever.

The military career of Wellington thus came to a close, but he survived to give more than one generation of his countrymen the benefit of his civil services. In 1818 he attended the congress at Aix-la-Chapelle; in 1822 represented Great Britain at Verona. In 1826 he was sent on a special mission to St. Petersburg; and in 1827 became Commander-in-chief of the army, a post which he resigned when the premiership was conferred on Mr. Canning, whom he disliked and distrusted. In 1828, however, by the death of Mr. Canning and dissolution of Lord Goderich's administration, Wellington became Prime Minister, and the constitution of the Cabinet gave unbounded satisfaction to the Tory party throughout the three kingdoms. In 1829 the famous Roman Catholic Relief Bill was passed, and a storm of invective immediately burst on him, which for violence has seldom been equalled. One of the leaders of the anti-Catholic party accused him of premeditated treachery to the Protestant party and treason against the constitution, and, refusing to retract his charges, accepted a challenge from the Duke, received his shot, fired his own pistol in the air, and tendered an apology.

In 1830 George IV. died, and the French Revolution broke out; and in November, as the Duke presented an attitude of unyielding resistance to the public feeling for reform in the representative system of the country, the Ministry was left in a minority; and the Duke of Wellington and his colleagues placed their resignations in the hands of the King. In 1834 he accepted the position of Foreign Secretary; but in 1835, Peel and his colleagues having been outvoted on the Irish Church Bill, resigned. Wellington never again took charge of any of the civil departments of state. The command of the army reverted to him in 1842, and was confirmed to him by patent for life. In 1846, on the final overthrow of the Peel ministry, the Duke formally intimated his final secession from political life, and never again, except on military questions, took any prominent part in the debates in the House of Lords. But his interest in everything relating to the service of the Queen was in no degree abated, and though not one of "Her Majesty's advisers" by office, was incontestably so in fact until his death, which took place in 1852 at his residence, Walmer Castle.

The above account is taken from the excellent article by James Taylor, in the "Imperial Dictionary of Biography."



J E F F E R S O N

EXTRA PLATE

JEFFERSON

1743-1826

AMERICAN STATESMAN

THOMAS JEFFERSON, twice President of the United States, was born in Albemarle, County Virginia, April 1743. His father was an early settler there; had been employed in various boundary surveys, and aided in constructing the first map of Virginia ever made.

After receiving a tolerable preliminary education, Jefferson studied at William and Mary College, Williamsburg, and learned a great deal from its professor of mathematics, Dr. Small, a Scotchman, whose services to his early culture are gratefully acknowledged in his autobiography. He was a student of law when, in the House of Burgesses of Virginia, he heard with sympathy and admiration Patrick Henry declaim against the Stamp Act.

Two years later he was called to the bar, and was rising to eminence in his profession, when he diverged permanently into politics. In 1769 he was elected a member of the House of Burgesses for his county, and made an unsuccessful effort for the emancipation of the negroes. He soon became one of the leaders of those younger members of the house who were for bold measures, and disliked the timidity of their senior fellow-representatives. On the dissolution of the Virginia Assembly by the Governor, after

its assertion of the right of self-taxation, Jefferson joined Washington, Patrick Henry, and others, in protesting.

In 1773 he aided in organising the Standing Committee of Correspondence, which proved an important agency in the American Revolution, maintaining as it did a constant communication between the disaffected provinces. He was a member of the first Virginian convention, which met independently of the British authorities; and a bold paper, which he laid before it, entitled, "A Summary View of the Rights of British America," was adopted by Burke, and republished with some alterations by him in London. To the General Congress, Jefferson was sent as one of the delegates of Virginia, and the original draught of the celebrated Declaration of Independence was his handiwork.

He retired from Congress to labour in the legislature of his native state, where he procured the abolition of entails, and, after a long struggle, that of the Anglican Church establishment. He advocated a general scheme of State education, and, with even less success, a plan for the gradual emancipation of the slaves.

He does not seem to have had any military ambition or skill, and contented himself during the War of Independence with discharging the civil duties of the Governorship of Virginia, to which he was elected in 1779. He had twice previously declined, for domestic reasons, a mission to Europe. However, after peace was declared, he accepted the mission, and in company with Franklin and Adams, went to Paris to regulate treaties with the nations of Europe. In these negotiations his principal success was with Frederick the Great.

He succeeded Franklin as Minister at Paris, and witnessed the early scenes of the French Revolution. On his way home, in 1789, he was met by the offer of the Secretaryship of State, which he accepted. He entered on his duties March 1790, and was the leader of the democratic section of the Cabinet, in opposition to the federalists led by Alexander Hamilton; and Washington had no small difficulty in making his divided ministry work.

At the close of 1793 Jefferson resigned, and returned to his plantations to occupy himself with study and agriculture: but he could not forget politics, and in his retirement he directed in some measure the councils and operations of the democratic anti-federalists, the party opposed to Washington. In 1796 he was nominated candidate for the Presidency; was

defeated by Adams, but became Vice-President. In this position he was the life and soul of the democratic party, and he reaped the fruits of his exertions when, in 1801, he was elected President. It was with Jefferson's election that, as M. Guizot observes, the long rule of the democratic party in the United States began ; and to his leadership its triumph is mainly due.

The great event of his first Presidency was his negotiation of the purchase of Louisiana, which had been ceded to France by Spain, and which Napoleon thought it would be difficult to preserve from the clutches of England during the war.

At the expiration of his term of office, he was re-elected. His second Presidency was distinguished by the promptitude and stringency with which he laid and maintained an embargo on outward-bound American vessels, when the commerce of the United States was threatened with obstruction. At the close of his second Presidency, Jefferson withdrew to private life, still taking a keen interest in public and local affairs. Through his exertions the University of Virginia was founded. His later years were somewhat clouded by pecuniary difficulties, the result of obligations incurred in behalf of a friend. An autobiography which he had commenced, and which is printed in his works, stops unfortunately at the close of his residence in Paris. His "Notes on Virginia," drawn up on the eve of his mission to Europe, have been often reprinted. He died July 4th, 1826—the very day on which, fifty years before, the Declaration of Independence was signed.

APPENDIX TO VOLUME VII.

PERICLES.

Fine line engraving from antique bust. Copies in the British Museum, in Paris, and in Rome. Joseph Longhi del. per Dalla Libera. Joseph Cozzi sculp.

ALEXANDER.

Line engraving from an antique bust. Rome. Joseph Longhi del. per Dalla Libera. Petrus Anderloni sculp. The features of Alexander resembled those given by artists to the gods,—Hercules, Jupiter, &c.

HANNIBAL.

Three-quarter figure from an antique gem, reproduced in Worlidge Coll. and elsewhere. The face is very dark, features characteristic.

CÆSAR.

Line engraving, profile from an antique statue. Rome. A number of statues, busts, gems and coins exist. A favourite bust in the British Museum—one also in Berlin. The countenance is thin and delicate, expressive of sweetness and intelligence.

CHARLEMAGNE.

Handsome line engraving, three-quarter view. Giovita Garavaglia del. et sculp. per Dalla Libera. Didot Coll.

ALFRED THE GREAT.

Three-quarter line engraving. G. Longhi dis. Per Dalla Libera. P. Carroni inc. Hall Coll.

WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR.

Copy of a painting from an ancient effigy. Reproduced in various histories of England and well known.

CHARLES V.

Titianus pinxit. J. Suyderhoef sculpsit. P. Soutman effigiauit et excud.

WILLIAM THE SILENT.

Koninklijk Museum van's Gravenhage (M. Mireveld). Eliak Sterk del. Déposé
Lith. Desguerrois en Co.

RICHELIEU.

Superb line by Nanteuil. One of the best engravings known. Didot Coll.

CROMWELL.

Stipple, by Bartolozzi. Best engraving of Cromwell. Rd. Walker pinxt.
F. Bartozzi, R.A., sculp. Nov. 1, 1802. Purchased in London.

PETER THE GREAT.

Line engraving, published in the *Vite e Ritratti*. The features are of a Muscovite
cast. In most pictures of Peter they are less strongly marked. Petrus Anderloni del.
et scul.

FREDERICK II.

Locatelli dis. per Dalla Libera. G. Cozzi inc. Hall Coll.

WASHINGTON.

Modern French engraving. One of a pair. Dessiné par Conder. Gravé par
A. Blanchard. Admirable portrait and well executed. Face much younger than
those usually seen.

NELSON.

Line engraving, three-quarter view, painted by L. F. Abbott. Engraved by
R. Graves, A.R.A.

NAPOLEON.

Fine French print. Represents him at maturity. Very handsome, prominent
forehead, nose and chin. Drugulin Coll.

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